

**COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE PLANNING PROCESS OF THE BUI
DAM PROJECT IN MID -WEST GHANA**

A THESIS SUBMITTED

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BY:

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family especially Waari Faisal Ekpampo, Mangtenso, Walekia, Mankir, Issah (Dependable Brother) and all those who supported me in my education and the many communities that have been affected by the Bui Dam project.



ABSTRACT

This study is an examination of how would-be-affected communities have participated in the planning process of Bui Dam Project.

The study adopted case study approach and focused on the design of Bui Dam Project from the consultant which was adopted by the construction firm. The communities studied are; Gyaamah, Bongase and Bui camp/village for the evaluation of communities that have been directly affected.

Data collection techniques such as, focus group discussions, household questionnaire and in-depth interview for institutions and organisations were used. They were analysed by the use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and qualitative techniques method was also employed as well.

The main findings of the study are that; communities were not adequately involved in the decision- making process of the Bui Dam Project, communities concerns were not adequately pursued, compensation have delayed and issues involving land has not been adequately resolve so far, minority groups have not adequately participated in the planning process and finally the project could be a potential source of conflict and such conflict could emanate between communities and Bui Power Authority and other institutional relationships with the authority.

The study recommended that community participation should be pursued, process of compensation should be accelerated, title documents should be given to affected households and communities and improvement in institutional collaboration. The study further recommended that communities need to be kept informed about the progress of the Dam and lay down procedure for resolving conflict made explicit, legal enforcement of standards and finally, gender mainstreaming should be taking seriously in all aspect of the project.



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ANOVA

Analysis of Various





BDA	Bole District Assembly
BDC	Bui Development Committee
BDS	Bui Development Secretariat
BOT	Build-Operate and Transfer
DDP	Dams and Development Project
DPO	District Planning Officer
DACF	District Assembly Common Fund
DFID	Department for International Development
EC	Energy Commission
EPA	Environmental Protection Authority
EPP	Environmental Mitigation and Management Plan
ESIA	Environmental, Social and Impact Assessment
ESRP	Environmental, Social, Resettlement and Dam Safety Plan
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
GDF	Ghana Dams Forum
GPRS II	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy II
GIDA	Ghana Irrigation Development Authority
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
GWCL	Ghana Water Company Limited
GoG	Government of Ghana
GWh	Giga Watts per hour
HSP	Health and Safety Plan
IHA	International Hydropower Association
ICOLD	International Commission on Large Dams

ILO	International Labour Organisation
IRN	International Rivers Network
KWh	Kilo Watts per hour
Km	Kilometer
LI	Legislative Instruments
MW	Mega Watts
MLGRD	Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
mm	Millimetre
m	metre
m'	Square metre
NDPC	National Development Planning Commission
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
PNDC	Provisional National Defense Council
PMI	Project Management Institute
RCC	Regional Co-coordinating Council
RRP	Restoration and Re-vegetation Plan
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UN	United Nations
UNEP	United Nation Environmental Program
UNESCO	United Nation Economic, Social and Cultural Organisation
UNHRC	United Nation Human Rights Commission
VRA	Volta River Authority
VALCO	Volta Aluminum Company
WATSAN	Water and Sanitation
WCD	World Commission on Dams
WB	World Bank

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CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Community participation in the planning process of large dams has been with mankind for thousands of years - dams to manage floods, to supply drinking water, to irrigate fields or to produce hydropower. Constructions of such dams have been intensively debated because of their impact on the ecosystem (World Commission on Dams (WCD), 2000a). Dam projects were and are still used as sources of accelerated development especially in developing countries and the Bui dam is not an exception (Fink, 2005; WCD, 2000b). The WCD (2000c) has observed that there has been little or no meaningful participation of would-be dam affected people in the planning process of large dam projects. As a result, the full benefits of such projects are not realised. The Dams and Development Project (DDP), (2005), stressed the need for an informed and all inclusive stakeholder dialogue as a new approach in the planning process and participation of communities on large dam projects. Against this background, the Ghana Dams Forum (2008) was constituted as a multi-stakeholder organisation to promote national dialogue on how best to effectively plan and involve the would-be affected people in the planning process of the Bui dam.

Over 40,000 large dams have been built worldwide in the last five decades and they have significantly contributed to human development by providing essential water and energy services (WCD, 2000a; Fink, 2005). These benefits, however, have had a high price in terms of ecosystems impact, social consequences, loss of bio-cultural diversity, and economic consequences. Most large scale dams became stalled in the 1990s because of the growing level of opposition by lobbyist groups until it was agreed in 1998 that the WCD should be established to address such concerns. The formation of WCD resulted in a comprehensive set of recommendations on the best way to improve planning, designing, constructing, operating, monitoring and decommissioning of dams.

Since Ghana's independence in 1957, it has constructed large and small scale dams to generate electricity, supply water for domestic and industrial uses and to irrigate agricultural lands to boost food production. However, as in other parts of the world, the



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benefits of these projects have not gone without considerable social, economic and environmental costs. Ghana's history of poor involvement of beneficiary groups in dam planning process of projects and the severity of social, economic and bio-cultural loss seems to be making would-be affected communities in the Bui Dam project area more worried despite all the good things that have been said about the construction of the Bui City" (Kalitsi, 2008). Fink (2005) admits that the mistakes that were made during the planning process of the Akosombo dam were repeated during the planning process of the Kpong Dam and that it may be difficult for the implementing agencies to adequately address all the challenges that the Dam may bring. It seems that in the planning process of the Bui Dam project, little improvement has so far been made as compared to former Ghanaian dam projects with respect to communities' participation (Ghana Dams Forum, 2008). Due to these fears expressed by stakeholder and NGO lobbyist groups, the decision to build Bui Dam has been increasingly contested to the point where the future of large dam building in Ghana is in question. The enormous investments and widespread impacts of Akosombo and Kpong dams have brought about conflicts over the socio - economic impacts of large dams - both those in place and those on the drawing board, making large dams construction one of the most hotly contested issues in participatory project planning today (Anane, 1999;Tsikata,2004).



The Ghana Dams Forum held in 2008 indicates that, there is no formal institutional framework for ensuring community involvement in dam projects and that community participation has taken varied forms with respect to the scale of the project. As a result community concerns have not been adequately addressed resulting in lack of confidence in the affected communities and environmental NGO lobbyist groups. Many people including displaced populations, host communities and downstream riverine communities have been adversely affected by the dams in the past. Resettlement programmes have fallen short of expectations, payment of compensations have either not been effected or unduly delayed, vulnerable groups have not been adequately catered for and reparations in general have been poorly managed. Even though trends in development acknowledge the virtues and capabilities of community's participation for the sustainability of development projects like the Bui Dam projects, the role of community's involvement in

the planning process of large dams are still significantly faced with constraints as far as sustainable programmes (DDP, 2005).

From the history of such limitations on dams' project in Ghana, this study attempts to investigate the degree of community's participation in the planning process of the Bui Dam project. On this note, the ensuing is a statement of the research problem.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Attempts to build a large dam on the Black Volta River near the village of Bui in the Brong - Ahafo Region of Ghana have existed for more than fifty years. Though several feasibility studies have been undertaken, frequent changes in government and difficulty in attracting financial assistance over the years have prevented its implementation. The Dam is expected to contribute to meeting Ghana's medium to long term energy needs as it will compliment and provide reliable and economically viable source of energy (Energy Commission (EC), 2004). The momentum and the urgency increased due to the low level of water in the Akosombo dam which necessitated the rationing of power in 2006 and the growing level of mismatch between demand and supply of electricity, the government was compelled to find an alternative means of increasing Ghana's electricity production both in the short and long term hence the governments quickly adopted a two pronged approach to expand the energy sector; through sectorial policy on thermal energy production and hydropower generation. Unfortunately, due to high increases in crude oil import bill in 2007, government thought it prudent to pursue the latter to meet the countries growing energy demand by immediately sourcing funding from the Export - Import Bank of China for the construction of Bui Dam.

Notwithstanding this laudable idea of alternative energy generation, the Bui Dam Project is expected to have both severe environmental and social consequences (Ghana Dams Forum (GDF), 2008; International Rivers Network (IRN), 2002). The 178km reservoir with the capacity of 400MW of electricity will displace about 2,500 people (Coyné et Bellier, 1995 as cited in Fink, 2005) with a large part of this dam lying within the Bui National Park, where unique riverine gallery forest habitat and most of Ghana's remaining hippopotamus are threatened by the project. Regrettably, due to its political appeal, less attention was paid to these concerns raised by NGOs and international



lobbyist groups and it seems little effort has been made so far with respect to stakeholders involvement compared to former Ghanaian dam projects (Tsikata, 2004).

Consultation with affected communities did not play much role when Ghana's first dam at Akosombo was planned and finally implemented in 1966 (Chambers, 1970) so also was the Kpong dam of 1982. So far, the planning process of the dam project lies almost exclusively in the hands of non-decentralized energy regulatory bodies, the government and the consortium from China executing the project (Fink, 2005). Despite a paradigm shift over the years in planning from "top-down" to "bottom-up" approaches, active involvement of stakeholders in the various communities and civil societies directly affected by the projects is weak (GDF, 2008). According to Bacho (2001) affected parties that have no strong interceders, such as the rights of the marginalised groups are in danger of being seriously neglected and so concerns of these groups such as their livelihoods, resettlement and compensation and cultural heritage sites are often threatened.

Anecdotal evidence further points to project failure in Ghana due to low level of community's involvement in the planning process. Common examples in the national dailies include: "Communities Must Support WA TSAN Projects"(Daily Graphic, 2001), "Cancel, Road Contract is Behind Schedule" (Daily Graphic, 2004), "Central Region risk Loosing European Micro Projects" (Daily Graphic, 2004), "Communities Unhappy About Bui Dams Resettlement Package" (Daily Graphic, 2008) and "Bui Development Committee (BDC) of Bui Dam has not yet Compensated Affected Communities"(Daily Graphic, 2008). There is therefore, a clear need to validate the role of community's involvement in the planning process of the Bui Dam project.

The position of this research is that, community participation in the planning process of large dams 'projects in Ghana is generally low and fails to address the specific needs of the affected communities. Due to these experiences, Bui Dam affected communities have not been adequately involved in the planning process of the dam projects and this has made it difficult for their specific needs to be resolve.

1.3 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

The main research question is: are the issues of community participation in the planning process of Bui Dam Project adequately pursued to address the needs of the affected communities?

1.3.1 Specific Research Questions

Specifically, the research seeks to consider the following sub-questions.

1. What is the nature of communities' involvement in the planning process of the Bui Dam Project?
2. Are marginalised groups (women) adequately represented?
3. How are the concerns of the communities addressed?
4. What are some of the fears that may result into conflict and how can such conflict/disagreement be minimised?
5. What is the relationship between BPA and other organisations that have interest in the project?

1.4 MAIN RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The main research objective is to examine the extent of community participation in the planning process of the Bui Dam Project.

1.4.1 Specific Objectives.

To achieve the main objective of the study, specific objectives were formulated. The specific objectives are:

1. To find out how affected communities have participated in the planning process of the Bui Dam project.
2. To ascertain how concerns of women have been addressed.
3. To identify potential source(s) of conflict relating to the project.
4. To make recommendation on how such concern(s) should be addressed in the future.



1.5 RELEVANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Evidence from Akosombo and Kpong Dams shows that community's involvements in the planning process in Ghana was low (Fink, 2005; Tsikata, 2004; Anane, 1999). According to Ofori (2006) often, the implementation of multilateral and bilateral aid of large size projects like the Bui Dam inadequately recognise and integrate existing communities structures for sustainability despite the various environmental, social and economic impact analyses that would be undertaken.

Moreover, dams are intrinsically multi-sectorial in terms of their range of benefits, costs and impacts, perhaps more than other types of public infrastructure projects. Thus, most dam related planning process are currently, either formally or informally, multi-sectoral and 'multi-objective in nature and needs the integration of would-be-affected communities. While the planning process in the dam 'debate exhibits many potential areas for broad agreement, there are many differing approaches of community's involvement. This means assessing traditional and non-conventional options, supply-side and demand - side options, and structural and non-structural options in both a systematic and thorough manner for communities' participation in planning process of large dams' should involve full range of stakeholders should be of central importance.

So far, it seems that not enough has been done about the degree of community involvement in the planning process. According to the project implementers, consultations with affected communities have taken place but, worries about their poor participation in the planning process. Ghana's poor records of communities involvement in dam related project and the severity of the environmental and social impacts of the Bui dam echoed by the environmental lobbyist groups and NGOs kept potential financiers of the project away during the early years of the project initiation stage. In the light of these the World Bank (2002) admitted that mistakes that were made when constructing the Akosombo dam were repeated in 1982 during Kpong Dams construction and that the possibility of funding the project was slim.

Notwithstanding all the benefits of dam projects, it has had a high price resulting from the fact that the benefits to be derived are often reaped by societal groups other than those who have to bear the impact. To overcome such challenges, major actors in dam the



industry as well as affected communities would have to be adequately involved in the planning process of the Bui dam.

Based on these shortcomings, the rationale for this study is to contribute to development strategies and policy decisions on how would-be-affected communities should be actively involved in the planning process of dam projects. It is also intended to identify and recommend appropriate areas of collaboration among the stakeholders in the planning process of the Bui Dam Project so as to reduce conflicts. The outcome of the study is also expected to contribute to theory building in the area of community's involvement in the planning process of large dam in Ghana. Furthermore, looking at the Government intension of pursuing the Juale Dam Project with the Brazilian government's in the near future. Findings from this research will help minimise challenges and re-construct would-be-affected communities and implementers relationships.

1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The write up of this study is organised into five chapters. The first chapter gives the background of the study. It also states the research problem, research questions were to be answered, the stated objectives of the study and the relevance of the study.

In the second chapter relevant literature on the issues under consideration were reviewed and reported. The third chapter provides the general information of the study area (Tain District) relevant to the study. This chapter also presents detailed information on the methodology adopted for the study and how it was used. The fourth chapter contains details of the main findings and discussions of the research. Here findings of the research questions are discussed under the topics of community participation in the Bui dam project, minority groups in the participation process, concerns of the affected communities and the causes of conflict in the Bui dam project area. In chapter five, a summary of the findings and conclusions drawn from the study as well as suggested policy recommendations were put forth.



CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter delves into concepts and theories that are relevant to the subject matter. Arguments are made on key concepts and theories that provided the framework as perceived differently by different scholars. Major theoretical frameworks such as communicative planning theory and integrated resources planning are presented. The integrated resource planning is used as the foundation for this work. Conceptual frameworks in issues such as dams, conflicts, projects, participation, gender and project stakeholders are presented in the work.

The overview is not strictly chronological in relation to the historical development of these theories *per se* instead, the study concentrate on the development of the ideas of participation in connection with these theories. Furthermore, the aim is not to introduce all relevant planning theories from the last fifty years, but to present the main approaches to participation in the theoretical work of planning and the integrated theory of resource planning as an option for this study. This forms the basis of my argument in discussing the various concepts.



2.1

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1.1 Communicative Planning Theory

Forester (1989) argues that communication is of the most important element of planning practice. Interaction (with stakeholders or interest groups), communicating ideas, forming arguments, debating differences in understandings, and finally reaching consensus on a course of action replace detached, expert-driven plan-making as the primary activity of planners. These ideas are developed in their most sophisticated form. Habermas (1990a) also introduces 'institutionalism' as an explanatory theory of social dynamics to inform the normative position of communicative planning.

Habermas's (1990a) line of thinking is central to the communicative planning theory. With a concern to protect and extend democracy, he conceptualizes the 'life-world' (or public sphere) as separate from and outside 'the system' of formal economy and

government. Within the life-world, it is possible for rational and inherently democratic human beings to reach consensus, and coordinate action, through the process of communication. Habermas (1990b) recognizes that communication can be distorted in various ways and puts forward a set of criteria or discourse ethics, to guide communication processes. The processes must be inclusive, empathetic, open and existing power differences between participants be neutralised, then the outcome of such a process can be considered valid (Habermas, 1990a, 1990b). For communicative planning theorists, this has come to mean that the aim of planning is a just process that integrates the concerns of the community members, and that if the process is just, the outcome will be as well (Fainstein, 1995; Davidoff, 1973). They echoed Habermas's (1990a) faith in civil society as a source of democracy, and as a vehicle for placing pressure on the state to act more responsively by mass participation of the people.

Healey (1999) adds two further dimensions to the idea of communicative processes.

The first, shared by 'cultural-turn' scholars such as Mantysalo (2002), is the emergence of 'local knowledge', referring to 'items of information that are mapped and interpreted within the sense-making frameworks and purposes of particular social networks'

(Healey, 1999). It consists of common sense and practical reason, skills and routines, and may be spoken or unspoken. A second dimension opined by Fagence (1984) which

is related to the first is that consensus-seeking processes can have an added benefit in that the shared understanding, mutual trust and 'identity creation' which are built up, linger on as new 'cultural resources' or 'cultural capital' (Healey, 1999), benefiting future planning processes. Also central in mainstream development, social capital is frequently promoted as a precondition for both economic development and more democratic systems of governance (Mohan and Stokke, 2000). It assumes that such relationships of trust and mutual (economic) interdependence can persist over long periods of time, in particular localities, leading to 'bottom-up' processes of development and authentic participation. The important aspect of communicative planning theory is its tendency to focus on subnational levels of government on individual actors, be they planners or related participants, and on inductive theorizing.

In terms of the long-standing debate between planners and communities, the pendulum has clearly swung back to community participation, and along with it, an interest in the



power of local government and local organizations to take forward the idea of democratic planning. This, again, is not out of line with mainstream development thinking with its focus on local economic and political empowerment (Mohan and Stokke, 2000), and with interest in culture and context shape knowledge and behavior (Storper, 2001). The assumption is that society can be transformed from the 'bottom up', and that just local processes can change the broader distribution of resources and power by active participation.

2.1.2 Integrated Resources Planning Theory

The study advocates for integrated resources planning approach to dam related activities (Nichols and Von Hippel, 2000). They opined that it is a process that encompass multiple objectives and strive for strategies, plans, and projects that are resilient and durable against the unexpected. The attempt to identify all technically feasible development options, their economic and financial impacts, and their environmental and social impacts. Here, they expatiated on the nature of planning to involve integrated planning in contrast with the more limited approaches that were discussed earlier. They described integrated resources planning as one with both an analytical and a process dimension. In furtherance of such theory, Brody (1999) and English et al (1993) contend that, from a process and an analytical perspective, decision-making are assessed, in the light of their multiple impacts on the objectives. In its fullest sense, integrated resource planning is a process that creates, implements, and continuously modifies comprehensive resource management plans (English et al, 1993; Flowers, 1998). It is a transparent and participatory process that involves all stakeholders. According to Brody (1999) it constitutes the fundamental differences from traditional planning theories, though there are other key differences as well. Thus, such participatory processes give systematic consideration to the planning outcomes that are of concern to all sets of stakeholders. Brown et al (1999) got motivated in such discussion and concluded that stakeholders constitute the full range of parties affected by planning outcomes (key, primary and secondary stakeholders) and explained that they could be governments, supplier and financial businesses, domestic and commercial resource users, social groups (for example



based on environmental interests, or location within a river basin). This view is also supported by Fink (2005) and Cosgrove and Rijsberman (1999).

Attention is needed to support and facilitate participation in water resource planning and management by water users, underserved groups, women as water users and managers at the household and community level, and by groups that may be displaced or otherwise adversely impacted by water resource development projects (Gordon, 2006; Brody, 1999). Most obviously from a sustainability perspective, these objectives will likely concern environmental quality and indeed several aspects of multi-criteria approach water quality, resettlement, compensation livelihoods and biodiversity. A participatory process take inputs from stakeholders but equally provides outputs to them as they learn from each other, and from the evolving body of data and analysis that is a critical support to planning.

The two set of theories discussed above, though attempts to address the issues of participation and planning process. However, under the contest of water resources, the ideal theory is the integrated resources planning. In the light of this exegesis, I intend using the integrated resource planning theory as a foundation for my analysis of community participation in the planning process of Bui dam project in the water resource as one proceeds. These arguments therefore, reinforce my choice for the 'integrated resources planning theory' as an analytical tool. For an in-depth analysis of the theory and for the purpose of this study some concepts and policies have been reviewed.

2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.2.1 Definitions of Planning

According to Davidoff (1973) "*planning is the process for determining appropriate future action through a sequence of choices*". They argued that the choices which constitute the planning process are made at three levels; the selection of ends and criteria, identification of alternatives and the guidance of action towards determined ends. They contended that the environment surrounding planning should take into account the knowledge of the community and people who benefit from such process. It is also seen as a response to uncertainty in the future and amounts to decision-making which involves



the identification of problems, ranking of needs, as well as the mobilization, allocation, and utilization of scarce resources to meet competing needs (Kendie, 2000). Planning in this regard is seen as an integrative, participatory, problem solving and a continuous task (Fagence, 1984). Even amid grave poverty, individuals, households, firms, government agencies, NGOs undertake some form of planning. Such an example shows that planning touches almost every aspect of our daily lives and everybody is involved in one form or the other with planning (Kendie, 2000). Hall (1975) opined that planning as a general activity is the making of an orderly sequence of action that will lead to the achievement of a stated goal or goals. McLaughlin (1969) used 'systems approach' to explain the concept planning and that 'system' which planners have to deal with are the human activities and these are linked by some form of communication. Central to the systems view is the fact that planning was never seen as ever being entirely completed; only specific stages of the plan can be completed since development is an endless process which involves a cyclical approach to planning, with the completion of each stage being the beginning of the next process.

Within the context of this discussion, it is better to adopt Diana and Hills (1984) definition of planning as a continuous process which involves decisions or choices, about alternative ways of using available resources, with the aim of achieving particular goal(s) at some time in the future. Thus planning is seen as a tool for allocating resources and also as a future concept. The main aim of adopting this explanation is a move towards greater integration of the several parts of the planning process and its participatory nature of beneficiary communities.

2.2.2 Forms of Planning

Planning is generally seen as an activity which is not restricted to any particular field. It is carried out by almost every person in one form or the other. Despite the variations in the overall conception of planning, there are a number of interfaces between the forms such as, Policy /Regulatory Planning, Strategic Planning, Programme and Project Planning and Operational Planning



The strategic or sectoral planning would identify alternative plans for water and energy resource development (Nichols and Von Hippel, 2000). These plans would typically consist of some mix of policy measures, programmes and projects to achieve a stated development goal, or as is often the case, satisfy a number of development objectives.

Project planning would aim to identify whether a specific project is actually feasible in the context of the larger plan and provide the design. Project level and operational planning activities are more prescriptive. In an ideal situation, information gained from monitoring and operation phases for existing assets and projects would feed back in to the project planning and strategic planning stages.

2.2.3 The Planning Process

The planning process is a logical flow of steps leading from initial formulation of the scope of the process, through intermediate stages, until decisions on a course of action are made and implemented (Kanshahu, 2000). While such a framework is essential, there are two cross-cutting elements to be mentioned before outlining the stages of the planning process. One is the iterative nature of planning and the second is its collaborative character (Kerzner, 1992; Rondinelli, 1983).

Judging from this line of argument, I argue that at minimum, planning is collaboration between analysts and decision-makers. This means that communication between the decision makers and analytical actors in the process needs to be ongoing. In addition, best practice in water and energy planning today emphasises the involvement of a full range of stakeholders in planning in a more or less ongoing fashion (WCD, 2000).

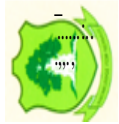
2.3 THE GHANAIAN PLANNING PROCESS

The planning process in Ghana has gone through a lot of evolution since the colonial periods. In 1993, the local Government Act (Act 462) streamlined and intensified the decentralization process that became the backbone of the machinery of government in reaching out to the people. The on-going decentralization process is a planning system consisting of three tiers: national, regional and district levels which are spelt out by the NDPC (system) Act (Act 480) of 1994.

Ahwoi (2004:27) sees decentralisation as: *"Any deliberate change in the organisation of government involving the transfer of powers, resource and functions from the centre to units of government and administration at sub-national level."* Sowu (1996) posits that it is a change in organisation and running of government that involve the transfer of power, function and/or resources from the national to any sub-national level or levels to make sure that as many people as possible at the lower levels are enabled and seen to be taking a meaningful part in the decision-making processes that affect their physical, political and social quality of life.

The decentralisation process in Ghana has several focal areas which complement each other;

- **Political Decentralisation:** Political decentralisation transfers policy and legislative powers from central government to the local units, viz Sub-metropolitan, Urban, Zonal, and Town/Area Councils. The District Assemblies which have executive, deliberative and legislative powers are the main organs for articulating the views and aspirations of the people. (Ahwoi, 2004)
- **Administrative Decentralisation:** Administrative decentralisation is the dispersal of staff of higher levels of government to lower levels. In the implementation of the current local government system, the 1988 Local Government Law provides for an executive committee which among others coordinates, plans and programmes subcommittees and submit these as comprehensive plans of action to the District Assembly. The Executive Committee oversee the day- to - day administration of the Assembly. To this end decentralised departments are established at each District Assembly to fulfil the roles according to the subsidiary principle (Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, 2006)
- **Fiscal Decentralisation:** Fiscal decentralisation accords substantial budget autonomy to intermediate and local governments. This autonomy includes the means to generate substantial revenues internally, and effective control of expenditures made with these revenues and with transfers from higher level district level (Ahwoi, 2004). Fieldstad (1997) argued that fiscal decentralisation is the devolution of taxing and spending powers to lower levels of government. This



locally generated revenue is supplemented by fiscal allocations from the national level as the District Assemblies Common Fund (DACF) Act (Act, 455). Over the years the fund has been increased from 5 to 7.5% in 2004 and to 10% in 2008 of total government tax revenue (Awhoi, 2008)

- **Decentralised Development Planning and Programme Implementation:**

District Assemblies receive planning sovereignty as District Planning Authorities to draw and implement their own District Development Plans and under the roof of national policies (Jensen, 1995; NDPC, 1994)

2.3.1 Levels of Planning in Ghana

The ongoing debate on decentralization process is a planning system consisting of three tiers: national, regional and district levels with their functions clearly spelt out in the National Development Planning System Act (Act 480) of 2004.

Here, I consider the main components of the planning processes at the national, regional, district and the project levels in our settings. Planning at the national level consists of governance procedures, laws and policies that impact and regulate the development and use of water and energy resources and facilities (NDPC, 2004). English et al (1993) views that federal systems, states or provinces can have a substantial share in crafting such laws and policies. To fulfill these functions, NDPC prepares a long term development policies such as GPRS I & II. These policies form the framework for District Development and Sectoral Plans but are sometimes poorly coordinated. However, I consider direct planning done by governments as owner of resources and resource utilisation facilities to be sector level planning. I focus most on planning at the sectoral level. Sector is a loose concept used to refer to sets of natural resources defined largely in terms of their use in overlapping sets of human activities (GDF, 2008). Energy resources sector constitute another area, with the focus here being primarily on the power sector component. Planning processes that select one or more projects to be part of a resource plan occur at the sectoral level (Von Hippel, 2000). I consider the river basin/watershed as a geographic framework for promoting integration in resource planning, environmental assessment, and resource management as shared by (WCD, 2000b). However, the degree of decentralisation gives rise to different types. The



quantum of power, function and/or resources transferred and how they are transferred and to whom differentiate the levels.

These units of government and administration in the political subsystem, needless to say are central government field agencies and representative of local government institutions could either be delegation, deconcentration, or devolution.

Whichever way the discussion takes, it is imperative to conclude that if decentralised institutions are to perform the responsibilities devolved to them, it will lead to responsive, effective, efficient and sustainable service delivery which will in a long run bring about increased community participation among the people.

2.4 PROJECTS AND PROJECT PLANNING

According to Atakora (2007) projects are sets of measures with predetermined objectives, especially in order to identify solutions for developmental problems. This view is also shared by (Amposah, 2007; Dugbenu, 2007). Ofori (2006) sees development projects as one that evolves from a number of actors' including donor agencies, evaluators, local beneficiary community including local organizations. These explanations describe the concept and how predetermined objectives should be met. It does not however describe knowledge evolving from the people themselves and how the content and the activities should be initiated by the beneficiaries.

According to Gosling and Edwards (1996) "projects spiral" are relatively simple iterative models that have inherent logic and can effectively be used as a guide for future actions and shows how development work is never straightforward and in reality does not always follow the ideal 'project cycle' because all development work involves learning and changes at every stage and experiences gained in carrying out a piece of work can be incorporated into future activities. This spiral consists of needs assessment, appraisal, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. While accepting the explanations and the process of projects spiral in their view, I must also admit that in complex and large scale projects, the project cycle is ideal. Projects are planned and implemented in a social, economic, and environmental context, and have intended and unintended impacts. The



project phases define the cycle that connect the beginning of a project to its end. The transition from one phase to another within a project's life cycle generally involves, and is usually defined by some form of technical transfer or handoff (Kanshahu, 2000).

However, for the purpose of this discussion, projects would be seen as a set of activities involving the use of local resources to obtain benefits which should be sustainable with predetermined objectives and which stakeholders (community participant) needs, interest, values, knowledge are take into consideration. Projects by this description would mean that each project spiral should take into consideration the indigenous knowledge developed around gender in relation to a particular geographical area and should be unique to a given culture, location or society. Generally, project ideas originate from various circumstances because of the differences in the local knowledge of the people.

Kanshahu (2000) describes project planning as the stages that follow after a project has been selected through the options assessment process at the various levels. Detailed designs are needed to implement the selected project (Nichols and Von Rippel, 2000).

Kerzner (1992) argues that with structural facilities like dams, detailed design leads to refinement in the characteristics assumed in developing the recommended plan, and preparation of biddable specifications. In line with such arguments, Cusworth and Frank (1993) contend that financial arrangements cannot be completely finalised until a project has been selected and gone through all critical approvals. Dugbenu (2007) also posits that tendering and contracting may lead to changes in project design, which in the case of a large dam project may not be trivial and may imply stakeholder consultations. The ensuing large construction project shifts the emphasis in skills required from the analysis and negotiation skills of the options assessment phase, to strong management skills (Rondinelli, 1983; Dinsmore, 1990).

2.5 PROJECT STAKEHOLDERS

In tracing the project spiral, I need to situate clearly the understanding of people who are affected by the project. Amponsah (2007) opine that, they are those effecting change in the community and those affected by it. He argued that the list of stakeholders should depend on the projects, conflicts and or issues to be addressed and should be as inclusive

as possible. The Dugbenu (2007) in furtherance of this explanation also argued that, project stakeholders are individuals and or organizations that are actively involved in the project, or whose interests may be affected as a result of project execution or completion

2.5.1 Stakeholders in Bui Dam Project

Fink (2005) carried out an extensive stakeholder analysis for the Bui Dam Project. The main stakeholders at the level of government are the national agency which in this case is the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). The ability of the EPA to engage fully in the process that lead up to the inception of a dam project is limited. This is not because the Agency does not know what needs to be done, but rather due to the lack of funding to the agency and the lack of internal capacity to implement the needed activities (Gordon, 2006). The importance of stakeholder groups identified above for the dam planning process varies considerably. Some stakeholders are of central importance as they have a lot of influence or are affected severely by the effects of the project while others in comparison play a quite marginal role (Nichols and Von Hippel, 2000).

In a democratic society, participation in the overarching processes of government affords one level of potential stakeholder participation. But to consider how stakeholder participation and consultation can be most effective in applied resource planning, we must look at groupings of people according to roles or interests that are distinctive as relates to water-related planning (Nichols and Von Hippel, 2000). I cannot identify or predict all stakeholder groups that may be relevant but I can indicate the general importance of involving the following stakeholders in planning, Key stakeholders, Primary stakeholders and Secondary stakeholders

1. **Key stakeholders:** They are those who can significantly influence or are important to the success of an activity
2. **Primary Stakeholders:** Those individuals and groups who are ultimately affected by an activity as beneficiaries.
3. **Secondary Stakeholders:** All other individuals or institutions with a stake, interest or intermediary role in the activity (Fink, 2005).



I agree with all the definitions of stakeholders offered and to add that stakeholders are persons, groups or institutions with interest in a project. With respect to the categorization, it is better to look at it from the perspectives key, primary and secondary stakeholders. This categorization arrogates to itself the fact that these primary stakeholders who are seen here as the indigenous people whose contributions are pivotal to the success of the project are important. Recognizing the need for the role of the secondary stakeholder, in my mind is ephemeral because, the sustainability of the projects will invariably rely on the local people. What is really important is efficient planning that needs to integrate all the needs, interest and aspiration of the local people.

2.6 THE CONCEPT OF PARTICIPATION

According to UNESCO (1986) resolution LVIII, participation requires the voluntary and democratic involvement of people in contributing to the development effort, sharing equitably in the benefits derived and decision making in respect to setting goals, formulating policies, planning and implementing economic and social development programmes. The World Bank (2002) sees participation as a concept which requires a considerable disagreement among development scholars and practitioners. Some use the term to mean active participation in political decision making. For certain activist groups, participation have no meaning unless the people involved have significant control over the decisions concerning the organization to which they belong. Todaro (2008) tends to define participation by the poor in terms of the equitable sharing of the benefits of projects. These diverse perspectives truly reflect the differences in the objectives for which participation might be advocated by different groups. Fagence (1984) typology of various rungs is a source of persistent reference throwing more light on citizen's participation. His euphemistic description reveals the central issue of such a debate on community participation, the locus of power is to bring about change. The ladders rungs are grouped into three generalized grades of participation of effectiveness, nonparticipation consist of manipulation and therapy. Degree of tokenism in this second grade has informing, consultation and placation. The final level is the degree of power consisting of partnership, delegated power and citizen control.



This view is also shared by Midgley and Hall (1989) that community participation is advocated as an organised effort to increase control over resources and institutions on the part of groups, hitherto excluded from such control. Bacho (2001) drew inspirations from Paul (1987) and Resolve et al (2000) and contend that all of them includes in some measure the notion of contributing, influencing, sharing, or redistributing power and control, resource benefits, knowledge and skills to be gained through beneficiaries involvement in decision making. The underlying concerns in the above discussions are the need to involve the marginalized and the oppressed groups in society to participate actively in the development process

I agree with all the explanations provided, however, under this context of study, I argue that community participation is a voluntary process by which people, including the disadvantaged, influence or control the decisions that affect them. In other words, community participation is an active process by which beneficiary' client groups influence the direction and execution of a development project with a view to enhancing their well-being in terms of income, personal growth, self-reliance or other values they cherish.

Despite any differences in the degree or extent of participation at various levels of the development process and the composition of participants at those phases, most definitions have rather looked at communities as homogenous entities. Community participation has been advocated, not only because it facilitates social services delivery by lowering cost and smoothing implementation, but because it also fosters a sense of belonging and integration. Due to the variation in the interpretation of participation, the purpose, dimensions and forms are further illustrated in Table 2.1



Table 2.1 Purposes, Dimensions and Forms of Participation

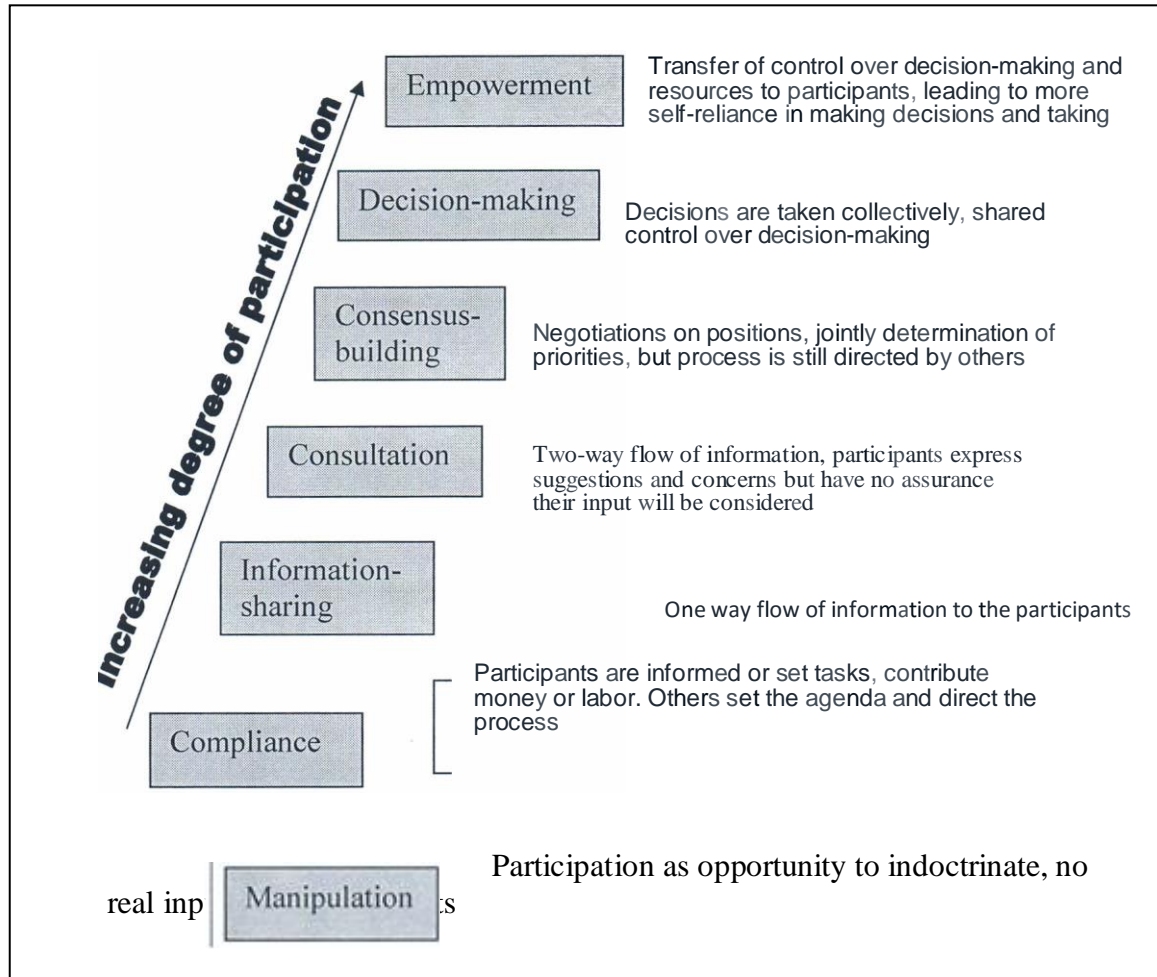
<p>Purposes: Why participatory planning is done</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation as a means: Improve efficiency, effectiveness, coverage and sustainability of planning process, participation to ensure sustainable development- functional participation • Participation as an end: Promote stakeholder capacity and empowerment, leading to greater self-reliance-empowerment participation
<p>Spatial dimensions: Societal level at which participation takes place</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local (communities, grassroots’ groups) level. • Regional level • National level
<p>Temporal dimensions: Stages at the planning Process at which participation takes place</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation at the preliminary level • Participation during the drawing of plans • Participation during implementation • Participation in monitoring/evaluation
<p>Forms: Mechanisms of participation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct participation: Involvement of individuals directly affected by the planning process. • Indirect participation: Involvement of organized groups • Advocacy planning: Independent planner adopts the role of stakeholders, articulates their interest and represents them in a decision process. Used when stakeholders are unable to represent themselves individually or as a group, often caused by lack of information

Source: Authors construct, Using Fink (2005), DFID (2002).

Fink (2005) argued that where most forms of participation exist, it describes the quality, intensity and extent of participatory practices adopted in a planning process. DFID (2002) depicts the different extends of participation where it moves from manipulation which is a stage where participants are manipulated to the highest degree of empowerment where transfer and control of decision-making are vested in the hands of participants as depicted in the figure 2.1



Figure 2.1 Increasing Degree of Participation



Source: Authors construct, 2009

In my analysis of participation, access to information is also of paramount importance and is true for both stakeholders who are involved in coordinating and moderating. It is a precondition that all stakeholders are identified and are allowed to express and negotiate for their interests. This view is also stressed by (DFID, 2002; Fink, 2005). The foci of this debate was reinforced by Forester (1989:8) as

"In a world of severe inequalities, planning strategies that treat all parties equally end up ironically reproducing the very inequalities with which they began. Nowhere is this paradox of equal opportunity more obvious and poignant than in apparently democratic, participatory planning processes in which initial inequalities of

time, resources, expertise and information threaten to render the actual democratic character of these processes problematic, if not altogether illusory"

Within the context of this debate, the WCD (2000b) argued that dam's debate was rooted in the wider participatory debate, the emergence of global debate of equitable and sustainable development. The WCD saw its work legitimate through internationally accepted norms of, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1947, the Declaration on Right to Development of 1986, and the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development of 1992

Central to these are the core values that appear to reinforce the concept of community participation. Summing these, lack of community participation often led to conflicts and revealing unequal power relationships. GDF (2008:10-11) had this to say:

"There is no formal institutional framework for ensuring community involvement in dam projects and that community participation has taken varied forms with respect to the scale of the project. As a result community concerns have not been adequately addressed resulting in lack of confidence in institutional structures and implementing agencies. Many people including displaced populations, host communities and downstream riverine communities have been adversely affected by these dams. Resettlement programmes have fallen short of expectations, payment of compensations have either not been effected or poorly managed"

Gordon (2006) contends that under the Ghanaian law on EPA (LI 1652), projects like the Bui Hydropower Project, which involves the resettlement of communities, requires public hearings. Fink (2005) suggests an outline and recommended procedures for direct and indirect participation as found in (Acres, 2001) and EPA, LI 1652). The report states that public and stakeholder participation should be undertaken in the project area and in Accra respectively, with the main intent of the consultation to inform the interest groups of the project and explore a range of issues. Stakeholders proposed for the consultation include District Assemblies, representatives of government departments and NGOs actively working in relevant fields, paramount and village chiefs of the affected area, and specifically target groups in the affected communities such as women and the youth. Gender issues are central for the sustainability of these projects and an attempt to adequately involve the communities must take cognisance of power relations between

such interested parties. The ensuing tries to find out how gender related issues are factored into dam related projects.

2.6.1 Gender and Participation

Gender is increasingly seen as a powerful social and cultural construct determining the ways in which social relations are structured between men and women. It constitutes the entire ambit of relations that govern the social, cultural and economic exchanges between women and men in different arenas from the household to the community, state and multi-lateral agencies (Apusigah, 2004). According to Mehta and Srinivasan (2000) gender is central to how societies assign roles, responsibilities, resources and rights between women and men. Allocation, distribution, utilisation and control of resources are thus incumbent upon gender relations embedded in both ideology and practice. In most parts of the world, there exist gender biases, which disadvantage women. Gender is not a static concept but differs in different cultural, geographical and historical contexts. It is contingent on factors such as age, class and tribe. Therefore, it is wrong to assume homogeneity amongst women who live in a particular community. Due to its crosscutting nature, no social or equity and distribution analysis can proceed without a discussion on gender in relation to participation because there are variations in the needs of men and women. An evaluation of impacts should hinge on two principal axes: equity and distribution.

Gender is a relational dynamic that influences the spread of resources, needed to be placed squarely on the agenda for a realistic impact assessment. Examining the roles of women and men in assessing these resources, we see that both equity and distribution are inter-linked; a just and fair distribution rests on equity and equitable relations. Similarly, costs and benefits of large dams would have to take into account the social, cultural, and political activities regardless of whether these consequences are positive or negative.

In the context of large dams, there are bound to be massive shifts in the ways in which men and women access and control resources across the river basin. In some cases, women might gain access to markets and urban facilities that were not available to them prior to resettlement, thus enhancing their set of economic choices and activities. In most cases, however, the social impacts of large dams built on existing inequalities in the





access to and control over resources and sometimes even create new one (Anane, 1999). These existing inequalities can also manifest it when dealing with minority groups in within the various communities. In the light of these, it becomes expedient for one to explore various literatures on minority groups and their relation to participation in large dams like the Bui Dam as can be observed below.

2.6.2 Minority Groups, Indigenous People and Participation

Colchester (2000) asserts that the concept of a 'minority' is a much broader and more encompassing one and has been popularly used to include any social group which distinguishes itself from the national majority, whether through nationality, religion, race, culture, language, caste or sexual orientation. It is however generally accepted that the term 'minority' refers not to numerical minorities within a nation but to groups that suffer some degree of domination or discrimination by more powerful or numerous groups (Millar, 2004; Haverkort, 2008). In practice, the UN Human Rights Commission and its subsidiary bodies have addressed the concerns of minorities when they can show that they are culturally, religiously or linguistically distinctive from the dominant population. With their elaboration on indigenous knowledge, Haverkort (2008) and Millar (1999) explains that Indigenous Peoples refer more specifically to long-resident peoples, with strong customary ties to their lands that are dominated by other elements of the national society. Although a number of Asian and African governments have sought to limit the definition of Indigenous Peoples to those peoples whose lands have been permanently settled by European colonists such as the 'Indians' of the Americas, the 'Aborigines' of Australia and the Maori of New Zealand, many people within Asian and African States define themselves as 'indigenous' and as distinctive from dominant national societies. Menchu (2008) argues that Indigenous Peoples or minority groups as far as international law and standards are concerned insist on the principle of self-identification, which they see as an intrinsic part of their right to self-determination. The UN's Draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples and minority groups provides even stronger recognition of Indigenous Peoples and Minority Groups' territorial rights. Article 26 states:

'Indigenous Peoples and Minority Groups have the right to own, develop, control and use the lands and territories, including the total environment of their land, air waters, coastal seas, sea-ice, flora and fauna and other resources which they have traditionally owned or otherwise occupied or used. This includes the right to the full recognition of the laws, traditions and customs, land tenure systems and institutions for the development and management of resources, and the right to effective measures by States to prevent any interference with, alienation or encroachment on these rights. '

The ILO has also agreed on special provisions regarding forced relocation, resettlement and compensation. Under Article 12 of Convention 107, Indigenous and Minority populations cannot be relocated except according to national law for reasons of national security, economic development and their own health. If they are relocated 'as an exceptional measure', they shall be:

'provided with lands of quality equal to that of the lands previously occupied by them, suitable to provide for their present needs and future development ... Persons thus removed shall be fully compensated for any resulting loss or injury. '

Within the context of this study, I intend to adopt the explanation on minority groups given by UN and its subsidiaries in their assessment to minority groups in Bui Dam projects.

2.7 CONFLICTS ON DAMS

The term conflict is an amorphous terminology. In Fink (2005) analysis, he contends that it is a social condition where at least two parties either pursue different, seemingly incompatible goals or intend to use different and incompatible means to achieve a goal. The conflict parties can be individuals, groups, institutions or states. Reychler (2001) also argued that conflict is a concomitance of social interactions and that the emergence of conflict signals inherent challenges that need to be taken care of. To confirm this discussion, Tonah (2007) posited that conflicts signal problems that need to be taken care of. WCD (2000a) further agreed that dams tend to produce benefits that accrue to groups other than those who bear the social and economic costs because they are often poor, vulnerable and marginalized or unrepresented. Accepting this argument is an inherent notion of inequality that is described as "unacceptable" (WCD, 2000:120).



A conflict is defined as the interaction of interdependent people who perceive incompatible goals and interference from each other in achieving set goals (Karsperson et al, 1992). Conflict resolution scholars and practitioners distinguish between conflicts, which involve many parties and extend over time, and disputes, which involve specific and bounded issues that parties pursue. Disputes may be incidents in a larger conflict. Gordon (2006) opined that in dam planning process, areas that can be sources of conflict are approaches to revenue sharing, paying royalties to land owners, land allocations and fishing rights. GDF (2008) and Resolve et al (2000) agreeing with this assertion identify conflicts resulting in settlers competing for resources with host communities. Tsikata (1999) went further to enumerate the complexities and generational permutations arising from experiences from Akosombo and Kpong dams. In many cases, such conflicts have resulted in ethnic conflicts aggravating the already polarized situation in those communities. In the light of this, Diaw and Smith-Kallert (1990:120) argued that; *"Relations have worsened over the years with the younger generations fanning such conflicts while hosts and settlers for the most part remain tense"*.

Biswas and Modak (1999) supporting these arguments demonstrate a chain of causes and effects cutting across many of the individual issues raised. This proposition also confirms WCD (2000a) core values envisaged and also the rights and risks advocated



I agree with them since there is interdependence amongst communities that are affected by dam related project because decisions for dam's construction are always made at the administrative and political units without adequate participation of the marginalized groups. Both upstream and downstream communities bear the impact of such consequences. Borrowing from Fink (2005) who demonstrated that conflicts are usually seen as malfunctioning in systems with efficient structures, it can also be seen as integrative by forcing societies to interact and to address and solve important challenges. However, to meet such requirements, institutions that can function as mediators need to emerge. These trends (and others) mean that public participation programs will have to be more timely, greater in scope, better designed and more diligent in identifying and involving the broadest possible cross-section of sectors of society and stakeholders. Most importantly, the programs will have to be more meaningful to all those who participate. If they are not, disputes and conflicts over dams will increase dramatically. Disputes and

conflicts will almost always occur in the process of watershed planning and power provision, and a much greater use of the best practices.

Within the context of this study, I posit that conflict is a struggle over values or claims to status, power, and scarce resources, in which the aims of the conflicting parties are not only to gain the desired values, but also to neutralize, injure or eliminate their rivals. Such conflicts may take place between individuals, between groups, or between individuals and groups. The sources of such conflict are usually complex and multi-faceted and the ensuing is to review various literatures on their sources with respect to dam related project.

2.7.1 Sources of Conflict on Dams

In recent years, researchers and practitioners have paid increasing attention to the controversies, disputes, and violent confrontations around development infrastructure, particularly around large dams (Forbes, 1996; Coulter & Mangan, 2000; Resolve et al, 2000). Several reasons suggested could explain why large dams are so prone to conflicts. First, they are generally justified by national or regional macro-economic benefits while their physical impacts are locally concentrated, mostly affecting those within the confines of the dammed river valleys, both up and down stream (Kalitsi, 1999; Tsikata, 2004). The mismatch of benefits and costs at these different scales creates a structural challenge to dialogue and, thus, translates easily into confrontational attitudes. Second, large dams affect critical, life-sustaining needs, such as the quality and allocation of freshwater, an increasingly scarce and coveted resource. Third, the lack of sufficient solutions to the social and environmental costs of large facilities in the eyes of those affected has resulted in increased social mobilisation around these emerging issues (Kalitsi, 1999; Resolve et al, 2000). Scholars have argued for many years that conflicts and disputes can be useful (Hallowes, 1993; Forbes, 1996).

However, much conflict becomes destructive because of the ineffective and inefficient ways it is handled (Morris & Alonso, 2006; Grey, 2002).

Conflicts involve stakeholders from different social systems and institutions, from environmental to social, organisational, technical, cultural, religious, and interpersonal relationships. Resolve et al (2000) are of the opinion that conflict on dam related issues



indicates that more are likely to occur when, people perceive that a decision or event significantly affects them, there are questions about whether the distribution of risks, benefits, and cost is fair, and people perceive that they can take some action, that it is a political decision rather than fate.

The way public participation process is conducted is often a source of conflict. An issue experienced world-wide is that stakeholder groups, when the outcomes of the process do not correspond with their desired outcome, attack the public participation process itself (Ferguson and Malwafu, 2005). Different conflict resolution processes will address interests and psycho-cultural differences more or less adequately. It is also important to fit the conflict resolution strategy to the history of the parties, relationships, and the existing social, cultural, and institutional context (Roy, 1994; Ross, 1993).

The major areas of conflict and dispute concerning large dams often stem from the common problems with the development process (O' Hare et al, 1983; Coser, 1956). When these problems are basically poor communications, the disputes that occur may be relatively easily resolved, but the relationships between the stakeholders can remain strained or seriously damaged. When the problems are related to inadequate participation activities, then improvements can 'be made that often help keep parties from deep conflict (Kasperson et al, 1992; Coleman, 1957). However, when the problems are the result of intentional efforts to exclude stakeholders from processes, to hide information, direct lying, or failure to implement promises, the resulting conflicts can spread to include issues not directly related to river valley management or escalate into situations that are very hard to resolve in the short or medium term (Deutch, 1973; Coser, 1956; Kasperson et al, 1992; Ross, 1993).

Morris & Alonso, (2006) and Grey (2002) contend that two ways of distinguishing the beginnings of conflict can be identified by; some conflicts originate in differences or competing interests. Interests are "people's feelings about what are basically desirable" (Gujit et al, 1998). Interests are an individual's or group's articulations of their reasons for acting and is shaped by social, gender, cultural, and historical factors. Forbes (1996) argued that dam-related interests are acquiring electricity, creating jobs, making profits, not being flooded, retaining land ownership, changing political power, maintaining watershed forests, and many more. Other conflicts originate in psycho-cultural



dispositions and interpretations that are culturally shared by ways of understanding and responding to others' behaviours (Hallowes, 1993; Kalitsi, 1999; Resolve et al, 2000).

2.7.2 Involvement and Conflict Dynamics (Power Relationships)

When an individual or group interests and psycho-cultural dispositions are thwarted or unacknowledged, people look for ways to assert or achieve them. The types of issues and the relationships of the parties affect how the individual or group chooses to pursue their interests or values (Gujit et al, 1998; Kasperson et al, 1992; Ross, 1993). Their options for satisfying their interests and values are also shaped by social and cultural factors, and the institutions and contexts in which they arise. Kasperson et al (1992) opines that given the diversity of individuals, groups, and institutions involved in dam conflicts, it is important to briefly address how social and cultural factors influence public involvement and conflict dynamics. In line with this thinking, Roy (1994) opined that gender, ethnicity, class, land tenure and religion are social institutions that influence the options stakeholders have for pursuing their interests and values in dam conflicts. O'Hare et al (1983) adds that most societies, even those committed to equal opportunities, are stratified and hence women, religious and ethnic minorities, poor economic classes, and indigenous peoples face different social opportunities. Roy (1994) argued that groups who traditionally had little voice in society may be alienated, apathetic, and passive. Since they have had little experience with being heard or taken into account, when confronted with issues that affect their lives, they do not participate or voice their interests because they have no experience or expectation that it will be meaningful (Coleman, 1957). Kasperson et al (1992) argued that participation improved field teams relied on house-to-house visits to discuss the process and secondly, groups who have little voice and input into decisions may quickly escalate the tactics they use to seek a hearing or involvement. Since they have little experience of being heard or taken account of with traditional non-violent mechanisms, they may resort to extreme demands and/or violent tactics faster than would a group whose experience involves being included, heard, and taken into account. Individuals and groups with little voice or input may be led (or influenced) by individuals and groups from outside their group. Since they have had little experience with normal democratic participation and conflict handling, they

may lack internal spokespersons or leaders. Different social institutions also affect involvement and conflict dynamics. Law and social regulation vary considerably across societies and countries. These variations will affect the availability of different ways of participating and handling conflict. Family and community norms, education, government regulations, and bureaucratic organisation all will affect the tactics and processes groups use to pursue their interests. Individuals and groups in conflict usually have disparate access to resources and different capacities. Resources may include money, time and information; capacities may be organisational, linguistic, cultural and informational. These differences in legal or cultural rights, abilities, and resources to sustain activities affect involvement and conflict dynamics. The above discussion indicates why the involvement of local and regional groups in designing public participation and dispute resolution processes is so important

2.8 THE CONCEPT OF DAMS

According to International Commission on Large Dams (ICOLD) (2000) large dams are dams with a height of 1 Sm or more from the foundation level. If they are between 5-1 Sm high with a reservoir volume of more than three million m², they are also classified as large dams. Based on this accepted explanation, there are two main categories of large dams; reservoir type storage dams and run-of-river dams that often have no storage reservoir and may have limited daily poundage. Globally, within these general classifications, there are about 45,000 dams and these have created a considerable diversity in scale, design, operation and potential for adverse impacts. Reservoir dams impound water behind the dam for seasonal, annual and in some cases multi-annual storage and regulation of the river. Run-of-river dams (weirs and barrages, and run-of-river diversion dams) create a hydraulic head in the river to divert some portion of the river flows to a canal or power station. The extent of community participation in the planning process varies and such variation has the possibility of reinforcing existing power inequalities within the communities. In this context, our study focuses attention on the reservoir dam type which is been constructed at Bui dam project site.



2.8.1 Dams in Ghana

Information's on dams in Ghana are scattered, outdated and in some cases doubtful. The Volta River Authority (VRA) has the complete set of records on the two large dams it manages. The other two primary institutions with responsibility of operating of dams are the Ghana Water Company (GWCL) and the Ghana Irrigation Development Authority (GIDA). The purposes to which they put their dams are very different; as such the way that information is recorded (in some cases still in acre-feet) and the type of information that has been captured in their monitoring systems are very different (Gordon, 2006). In the light of this unreliable source of information on dams, Gordon (2006) concluded that due to such differences, the list of dams should be limited to sixteen (16) dams and should cover irrigation, water supply and hydropower dams. Out of this number, existing water supply dams are five, irrigation nine and hydropower two

2.8.2 Irrigation Dams.

Irrigation of crops constitutes the largest use of freshwater resources worldwide (FAO, 2005; Grey, 2002). The dependence of agricultural output on irrigation varies from region to region and is especially strong in some parts of the world. According to the WB (2002), 70 percent of Asia's food is produced on irrigated cropland. Irrigation dams in Ghana are nine, ranging from large to medium sizes. Since the size of the dam influences the level of community's involvement in the management of such dams, much cannot be said of the Tono and Veia irrigation Dams in Upper East Region of Ghana. Due to the vulnerability of the communities affected by the Dam, various strategies have been employed to get the active participation of the affected people to benefit from the dam (Ferguson and Mulwafu, 2005). Communities have been tasked to form various groups to manage irrigation dams because of the growing awareness that the beneficiary communities should be active participant in managing such resources.

2.8.3 Water Supply Dams

Water for industrial and domestic use has also accounted for the construction of dams globally. According to WCD (2000b), this accounts for 20% of all water withdrawals. This proportion tends to be lower in developing countries while in the developed world, it accounts for the largest.

In Ghana, urban settlements rely heavily on large dams for their water supply such as Weija in Accra, Dalung in Tamale, Inchaban at Inchaban, Brimsu at Brimsu and Owabi at Owabi. Bacho (2001) argues that because of the changing perception of water from "a gift of nature to economic good", participation of communities is *sine quo non* to sustainable water development in Ghana. In the light of this, governments and the private sector have been advocating for participation of communities in sustainable water development in Ghana.

2.8.4 Potential Hydropower Dams

Hydropower currently provides about 19% of the world's total electricity supply and is the most important electricity source in more than sixty countries (WCD, 2000).

Though about 70% of all technically feasible hydropower potential remains to be developed only a little more than 50% has the potential and have receive funding worldwide (IHA, 2001). Africa notably has low level of hydropower development but has the highest hydro potential of all the continents. In the middle of 2006, the Ghana government published its National Strategic Energy Plan, which laid out the nation's energy strategy over the years 2005-2025. Hydropower schemes on some rivers basins are scheduled for development during this period- Black Volta 5, White Volta 3, Oti 1, Tano 4 and Pra 4. Bui should be in place by 2012, Hemand and Juale by 2015, and Pwalugu by 2020. The project which is most imminent is the Bui Project as financing and construction have begun (Energy Commission, 2004).

Despite the construction of the West African Gas Pipeline, Ghana's association with hydro power is said to continue through the modernisation of the Akosombo facility and the construction of new dams. The Ghanaian government published its National Strategic Energy Plan, which laid out the nation's energy strategy over the years 2005-2025. Four

hydro schemes are scheduled for development during this period. Bui should be in place by 2012, Hemand and Juale by 2015, and Pwalugu by 2020.

Ghana is blessed by water resources but the number of suitable sites for dam projects is limited because of the number of people who would be affected by flooding and the extent of the likely environmental damage. However the real reasons for lack of progress on the dam projects are the issue of funding. A summary description of potential sites has been indicated but sites and figures are very different in several documents stretching back to 1965.

Table 2.2 Rivers and Their Hydropower Potentials in Ghana

River Basin	Catchment area (km ²)	Hydro power Potential (MW)
Black Volta	148,820	682
Bui	-	400
White Volta	105,540	133
Oti	71,949	90
Tano River	14,700	118
Pra River	22,290	220

Source: Author's construct

2.9 THE BUI DAM PROJECT

The need to expand Ghana's energy sector was due to an increase in demand in the last decades as a result of supply crises, most notably from 1982 to 1984, 1998 and 2006, as at 2002, the nation's total electricity consumption stood over 7,000GWh. According to EC (2004) the energy sectors' crises are mainly due to low rainfall, increasing demands, delayed capacity expansion, high operational losses and the inability to charge cost covering fees. The VALCO aluminum smelter at Terna, which uses about 62% of electric energy in Ghana, had to shut down in 2003 to free more energy for other users (EC,



2004). Insufficient energy supplies necessitated the diversification of Ghana's electricity generation where other isolated plants (Aboadze and recently Tema) in the urban centers which were hitherto being operated by VRA got connected to the National grid. It has also being argued that Ghana's per capita consumption of 320KW/h per person falls below Africa's average of 461KWh (Gordon, 2006; EC, 2004).

Though, Ghana is an exporter of electricity to its neighbours such as Togo, Benin and Burkina Faso, it is also a net importer of electricity during the peak periods of between 6.pm to 10.pm with such energy coming from Cote d'Ivoire (EC, 2004 as cited in Fink, 2005).

The Energy Commission (EC) used three scenarios with different growth assumptions to project the nation's electricity demand in the next 20 years as indicated.

Table 2.3 Demand Projection Scenarios for Ghana's Electricity Sector

Scenario	Assumed growth/ann.	Electricity Demand in			Annual growth rate electricity Demand
		2000	2010	2020	
High growth	11.1%	6,777	13,400	28,800	7.5%
Medium growth	6.6%	6,777	11,300	19,000	5.3%
Low growth	4.2%	6,777	10,300	15,600	4.3%

Source; Authors construct, using EC (2004).

Based on the demand projection scenarios, the Energy Commission outlined plans to increase the installed capacity and to find alternative source of energy. The Bui dam and the West Africa Gas Pipeline were the immediate alternatives that were available. However, due to security, independence and instability in the main source of the gas (Nigeria), the government opted for the Bui dam project. Though, electricity generated at Bui would be marginally expensive than the gas-fuelled electricity generation the government still thought it prudent to pursue that agenda.

The government of Ghana is currently implementing the Bui Hydro Electric Project. This is obviously to increase power supply in the country to meet customer needs. The project





seeks to establish a 400MW hydroelectric power plant at Bui in the Brong Ahafo Region. The Bui Power Authority Act (2007) Act 740 was therefore passed in July 2007 to set up an Authority to oversee the implementation of the project. The project envisaged involves the damming of the Bui gorge on the Black Volta. The engineering, planning and designs were done to ensure that the flood area does not spill over to the neighboring countries. The project will have significant environmental and socio-economic impacts (Gordon, 2006).

The Bui Power Authority Act (2007) Act lists the following as land to be acquired, the Bui reservoir and township areas, resettlement lands and other lands as necessary. Land below 183 meters above sea level has been identified as the area to be flooded.

The Bui site is located on the Black Volta, approximately 150 kilometers upstream from Volta Lake, at the border between the Northern and the Brong-Ahafo Regions. The main dam will be located in the deep gorge created by the Black Volta in the Banda Hills. It will have a maximum height above the foundation of about 110 meters, and a crest length of 470 meters. The dam body will be made of roller compacted concrete. Two saddle dams of a maximum height of 37 meters will also be constructed at a distance of about 1 km from the main dam. Three turbine units are planned to be installed. The estimated generation capacity is 400 MW with an annual energy generation of 1150 GWh (Gordon, 2006; Fink, 2005). As physical infrastructure in the region is poor, the project must also provide for the construction of appropriate facilities. The length of the reservoir along the Black Volta and its tributaries will reach 40 km with a surface of 440 square km. The project had three alternative designs (Table 2.4) for the government to select the best design option. Its capacity is estimated at 12,600 million cubic meters, with an active storage of approximately 6,000 million cubic meters (EC, 2004). The reservoir lies in part within the boundaries of a natural reserve, the Bui National Park, established in 1971. In order to mitigate its environmental impact, the project proposes detailed resettlement programmes and a plan for the protection of an area equivalent to the part of the Park flooded. The construction period of the Bui project is estimated to be five years. The location of the dam is the same for all the alternatives.

Table 2.4 Comparisons of Three Alternative Bui Project Designs

Parameter	Bui 1	Bui 2	Bui3	Sources
Maximum operating level	650 feet (198) above sea level	600feet(183m) above sea level	500 feet(152m) above sea level	Coyne et Bellier1994:VII-7
Dam height	125m	110m	80m	Coyne et Bellier 1994:VII-2f
Net height	74-92m	62-77m	38-47m	Coyne et Bellier 1994: VII
Peak power capacity at discharge of 400m ³ /s ₂₀	310MW	261MW	157MW	Coyne et Bellier 1994:VII
Net electricity yield (after losses at Akosombo and Koong)	1150GWh/year	960GWh/year	523GWh/year	Coyne et Bellier 1994:VII
Construction cost (1994) price	US\$563m	US\$434m	US\$274m	Coyne et Bellier 1994:VII
Number of directly displaced people	2,260	2,260	2,260	Coyne et Bellier 1994: VII
Reservoir area	685Km ²	432Km ²	178Km ²	Coyne et Bellier 1994: VII
Reservoirs area	695Km ²	435Km ²	191Km ²	Finks GIS analysis
Area flooded in Bui National park	598Km ²	383Km ²	149Km ²	Coyne et Bellier 1994: VII
Length of reservoir	117Km	47Km	31Km	Coyne et Bellier1994:VII

Source: Adopted from Coyne et Bellier (1995)

The main distinction between the three alternatives is the difference in the designs height of the dam, which leads to different heads, construction costs, peak power capacities and reservoir sizes. The three project alternatives have a maximum operating reservoir level of 650,600 and 5100 feet above the mean sea level respectively. The alternatives are referred to as '**Bui 1** ', '**Bui 2**' and '**Bui 3**'.

The **Bui 1**, was proposed by an Australian Engineers in 1976 has been argued to have disadvantages with only 20% increase in power compared to Bui 2, while the reservoir increases by 60% (Fink, 2005; Coyne et Bellier, 1995). The same design also concludes that the reservoir may extend beyond Ghana to Cote d'Ivoire at some points and flooding more larger areas but with limited increase in the level of its capacity to generate efficient electricity. Furthermore, access within the National park hence this was discarded.

Bui 2 has been recommended as the best alternative, mostly based on economic considerations but also with less impact on the Bui National park (Coyne et Bellier, 1994). Fink (2005) and Gordon (2006) concluded in their comparative analysis argued



that Bui 2 has gone through an extensive analysis because of its cost of generating electricity of about 6US cent/KWh compared to the others and thermal which will be about 36US cent/KWh. Sensitivity analysis further showed that the project is very sensitive to investment, cost overruns, water risk and alternative fuel costs (Fink, 2005). **Bui 3** has been intentionally ignored without any reason assigned but only indicated that the disadvantages are more than the advantages.



CHAPTER THREE

STUDY AREA AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides the framework that shaped my data collection, analyses and presentation process. It begins with the research location, the sampling procedure, sample units, source of data, organization of data and the specific tools and techniques for data collection in the field. It ends with the analytical tool/methods of analysis and how presentation was done.

3.1 THE STUDY AREA

The Bui Dam Project falls within the Tain and Bole Districts in the Brong-Ahafo and Northern Regions.

3.1.1 Location and Size

The Tain District is one of the newly created Districts in June 2004, in the Brong-Ahafo Region. It is situated at the North-West of Sunyani (Regional Capital). It lies within latitudes 7° 12' and 8° 45' North and longitudes 2° 52' West and 0° 28' East. In terms of land area, Tain District covers 4, 125 sq. kilometers.

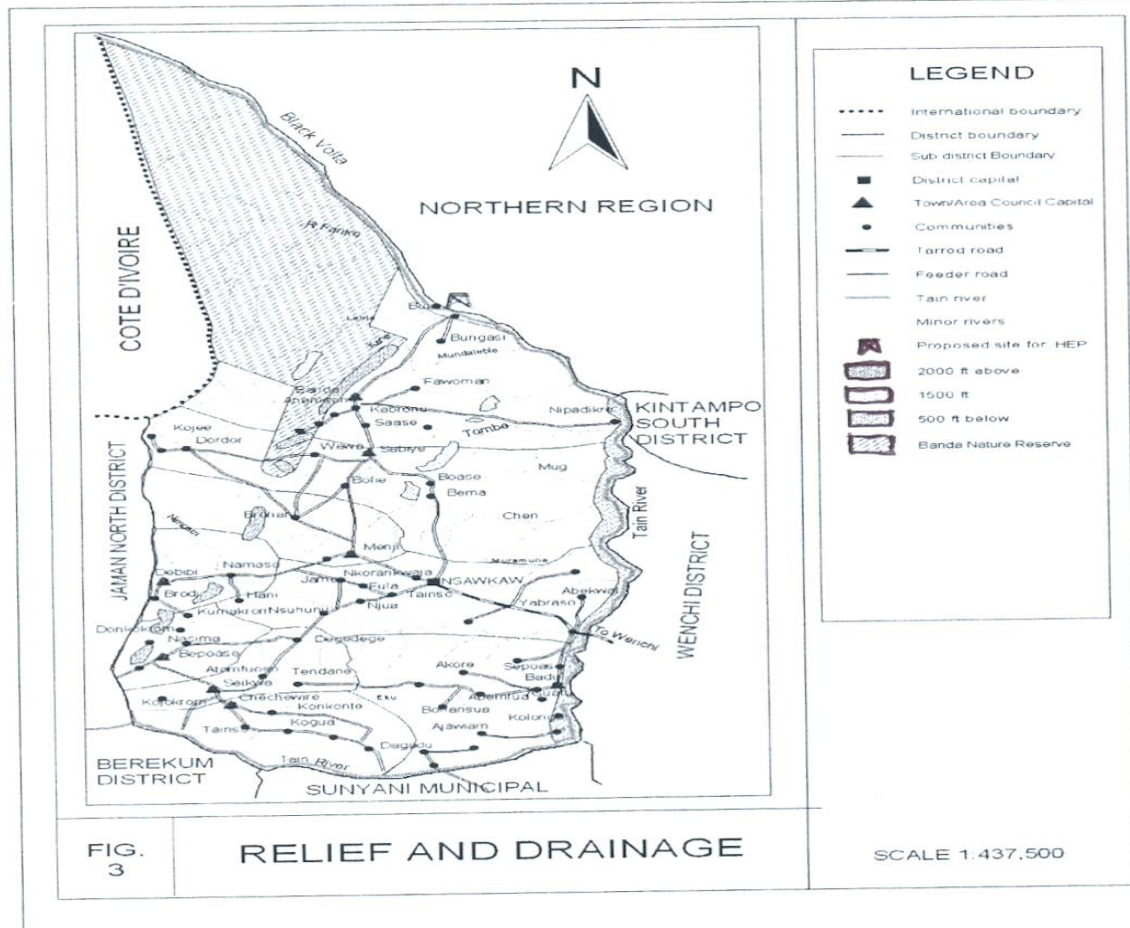
The district shares common boundaries with Wenchi District to the East, Jaman North to the West, Sunyani Municipal to the South and Berekum District to the South West. It is also bounded by the Bole District of the Northern Region to the North East and La Cote d'Ivoire to the North-West. Nsawkaw, the district capital, is 18 miles from Wenchi, the capital of Wenchi Municipal Assembly out of which Tain was carved.

3.1.2 Geology and Soil Types

Geologically, the district is underlain mostly by the Birrimian formation. The area falls under lower Birrimian which consists of such metamorphosed sediments as phyllite and schist. There are also granite and grano-diorite in the south-east and western parts of the district. The greatest proportion of the district falls under savanna ochrosol with some lithoso. The land is generally low-lying and most of the soils are sandy loam and in the valleys loamy soils exist.

The soils are fairly rich in nutrients and are suitable for the cultivation of crops such as maize, yams and cassava. There are clay deposits for bricks and the soil supports the cultivation of transitional and forest crops like cashew.

FIGURE 3.1 TAIN DISTRICT



Source: Tain District Assembly, 2009.

3.1.3 Drainage

Generally, the district is well drained. The Black Volta marks the northern boundary of the district with the Northern Region. The tributaries which serve the communities in the district are Tain and Nyampanie. While some of the streams dry up in the dry season, the major river flow throughout the year.

The present combination of the lack of water storage in the wet season, heavy run-off, high evaporation and low infiltration rates to charge aquifers in some areas contribute to water deficiencies hampering human settlement and increased agricultural production. Irrespective of the variation, there is therefore ground water in Tain and Volta.

3.1.4 Vegetation (Forest Reserves and Grooves)

The Tain District spans the moist-semi-deciduous forest and the Guinea Savannah woodland vegetation zones. The Guinea Savannah woodland represents an eco-climatic zone which has evolved in response to climatic and edaphic limiting factors and has been modified substantially human activity.

The original forest vegetation has been subjected to degradation caused mainly by indiscriminate bush fires, slash-and-bum agriculture, logging and felling of trees for fuel over the years.

The cumulative effect is that secondary vegetation occurs in cultivated areas. Timber species like Odum, Sapele, Wawa and Mahogany are found in places such as Dorbor and Bungase. In the semi -derived savanna areas, no large economic trees exist as a result of logging, charcoal burning and mechanized farming.

The grooves show that with protection, forest in the area can be productive because the soils in the sacred groves appear more fertile compared to soils lying a few metres away which have been laid bare by intensive cultivation and other unsustainable uses. In the grooves, wildlife like deer and antelope are found. Also, there are watersheds in forest reserves which include Sawsaw, Yaya and Bawa in the district. The combination of the vegetation zones - guinea savannah, transitional zone and the forest permit the cultivation of a variety of crops - cereal, tubers and vegetables and even animal rearing.

3.1.5 Population Distribution

The district had a population size of 85,216 as at 2004 (Tain District Assembly, 2006) and was estimated to be 90,933 (2006), with a growth rate of 3.3%. Tain District was carved out from Wenchi. The population density in the district is 22.0 persons per square kilometer (22 persons/krrr), which is less than the regional population density of 45.9 persons per square kilometer and the national figure of 49.3 persons/km', This low



density of the district implies that there is low concentration of people in the district, and coupled with the scattered nature of settlements, it is extremely difficult to provide basic services to the people of the district.

The district contains about 336 dispersed settlements. There are only five urban settlements and Nkawkaw is the capital of the district. The five urban settlements with their populations are Badu (11,345), Seikwa (9,196), Debibi (6,427), Nsawkaw (5,569) and Brohani (5,361). The rest of the population may be described as rural with population less than 5,000 (Tain District Assembly, 2006).

3.1.6 Religious and Ethnic Composition

Christians dominate in the district with 71.6% of the population. Muslims constitute 16.07% while 12.26% are African Traditionalists.

In the Christian domination, Catholics are the largest with 48.2% followed by Protestants (30.8) and Pentecostals/charismatic (21.0%). More females (69.35) are in the Christian faith than males (30.65%).

The district is quite heterogeneous with Banda ethnic group forming the majority. The other ethnic groups in the district are Kologo, Bono and Lugei. The migrants are mainly Dagaaba, Ewe, Gonja and Sisala (Tain District Assembly, 2006).

3.1.7 Occupational Distribution

The main occupation of the workforce in the district is agriculture and related works (80.2%) for both sexes. The rural/urban occupational distribution also shows the dominance of agriculture and the remaining 19.8% are in the other sectors. These sectors include industry, commerce/service, etc. Some of the activities under the 19.8% such sectors include: Beer bar operation 0.9%, Trading 9.2%, Driving 1.4%, Chop bar operation 0.5% and others 7.8% the other include carpentry, Store operators, Teachers, masons, fishing, herbalist, Tailoring, hunting, and Blacksmith.

Apart from primary occupation, almost everybody among the working group in the district is engaged in minor activities. These include: Farming 47.4%, Beer bar operation 1.5%, Herbalist 1.5%.





Sampling is the process of selecting a subset of population for the purpose of study as a representative of the population (Ahuja, 2007). The rationale is to make generalization or to draw inferences based on the study of the samples about the parameters of the population from which the samples are taken (Yin, 2003). Yeboah (2005) listed several methods as simple random, stratified random and cluster sampling. Based on probability theory, quota, purposive, snowball and haphazard sampling are non-probability sampling methods. In order to deal with large population in an equitable manner, it is probability - based sampling that is representative of large populations. Having these methods, the general rule is that the best method(s) that lead to the expected result is/are used. Therefore, multiple sampling techniques such as cluster, random, purposive and snowball sampling methods were used to draw the sample for the study. These methods were used because gaps created by one method were filled by the other, since no single method is ideal for this study and a blend of them enhanced data quality.

Based on the design of **Bui Two** which was adopted by the construction firm, the communities were grouped into three (3). Based on the grouping, three clusters were identified as: communities affected by the project during the construction, those affected by future dam reservoir and those downstream.

One community was chosen at random from each cluster based on relative similarity of the communities. Ten compounds were purposively selected from each of the communities selected. The criteria for selection of such compounds were that some households within the compounds must be a beneficiary of the compensation and/ or must be from minority ethnic group. This means that in some of the compound houses, there must be settler farmer or a head of a household within the compound should have benefited from compensation packages. Thus, purposive sampling was best for this procedure because of the lack of homogeneity in the household composition.

In the process snowball sampling was adopted by adding and removing households based on the contact with the first respondents within the compound selected earlier until all the three households within the compounds were fully captured and interviewed. The three communities finally chosen are shown in table 3 .1

The role of some government organisations and NGOs in the planning of the dam is crucial, hence they were interviewed to gather relevant information. In total fourteen (14) state organisations; the Lands Commission, Land Valuation Board, District Assemblies, customary land secretariat, VRA Trust Fund, Regional and District EPA, Forest Commission, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Ghana Irrigation Development Authority and The Town and Country Planning as well as the Bui Power Authority and four (4) NGOs were interviewed.

On the traditional institutional set-up, Chiefs and Queen mothers were purposively selected for the study. They were Banda Ahenkro chief, Chiefs from the three communities, North Mo paramount chief, Bole chief, The Yagbonwura and their respective queen mothers.

Table 3.1 Matrix of Communities Interviewed.

Affected Community	Communities	Number of Compounds	Respondents
Directly affected by project	Bui	10	30
Downstream impact	Gyaama	10	30
Affected by future dam reservoir	Bungase	10	30
Total	3	30	90

Source: Field survey, 2009.

3.4 SOURCES OF DATA

Generally, there are two sources of data for social research. These are primary and secondary data sources (Yeboah, 2005; Ahuja, 2007). Both sources were extensively used in this research.

Both primary and secondary data were collected from the field to appropriately address the research questions. According to Laws et al (2006:283), primary data are, *the data that lie closest to the source of the Ultimate Truth underlying a phenomenon*. Beyond the region of primary data lies the region of secondary data. Bebelleh (2008) argues that both sources when extensively used by the researcher tend to validate the outcome of information generated. Secondary data sources were also explored.



Below, I discuss the tools and techniques that were applied to collect primary and secondary data for the study.

3.4.1 Primary Data

Surveys, observations and semi - structured questionnaires were employed for the primary data collection from the field and the selected sample. Some participatory (PRA) tools such as checklist, focus group discussions and key informants interviews were also employed to generate primary data from the respondents and institutions were acquired through focus group discussions and in-depth interview using questionnaires.

i) Interviews

Ahuja (2007) defined interview as any person-to- person interaction between two or more individuals with a specific purpose in mind. Interviews are classified into unstructured and structured. The two classifications were used in the study. In using the unstructured interview approach, also known as the in-depth interview, a framework (focus group guide) was developed to guide the interview process. The rationale for using this approach is to enable me collectively engage with group of respondents within which questions can be formulated and asked spontaneously as the interview progress. This approach also allows the respondent to freely express their opinion. This therefore, supports Yin (1993) view that a good interview is one in which the interviewee takes over the control of the interview situation and talk freely. Hence, this approach was intend to solicit in-depth information on traditional natural resource management practices, values, believes, norms and historical events in relation to natural resource management systems.

ii) Focus Group Discussions

Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) are deep interactions with homogenous groups of people of between 6 and 12 persons, which enable the researcher to obtain information in a particular area of interest that would be difficult if not impossible to obtain using other methodological procedures (Kumekpor, 1996). Bebelleh (2008) further indicates that it is a method in which one or two researchers and limited participants meet as a group to

discuss a given research topic. It allows the researcher greater insights into why people think or hold certain opinions. Krueger (1988:18) outlines the features of a FOO as interviews; with people numbering between Seven (7) and 12 (Twelve), possess certain characteristics (relatively homogenous and unfamiliar but knowledgeable on the topic of concern), provide data of a qualitative nature and in a focused direction.

The advantage of FOOs is captured by Yelfaanibe (2009:45) as a technique that is able to: *" ... yield a large amount of information over a relatively short period of time and because it seeks to illuminate group opinion, the method is especially well suited for socio-behavioural and cultural specific research that will be used to develop and measure interventions that meet the needs of a given population."*

In this research, FOO techniques were used to solicit information from the various

associations/groups in the communities. Each of the three communities randomly selected had groups and associations with varied economic interest, and respondents were purposively selected because of their intermediary role in decision making process and mobilising members for self-help projects. In Bui village and Camp, three youth groups and associations, Bongase, three associations and in Oyaamah, three youth groups and associations were purposively selected FOO.

The researcher (the moderator) lead the discussion by asking participants to respond to open-ended questions -that is, questions that require an in-depth response -for detailed notes to be taken on the discussion. In this research, discussions were tape recorded and field notes taken at the same time so as to capture and report the details of the discussions as accurately as possible. This process was guided by a well taught out checklist

3.5 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

Questionnaires consist of well-formulated questions to probe and obtain responses from respondents (Twumasi, 2001). It may be structured, semi-structured or both. The questionnaire approach was adopted and used for both the formal organisations and the household data collection.

For the purpose of this study, a household is defined in accordance with OSS (2000) as *"a person or group of persons who live together in the same house or compound, share*





the housekeeping arrangements and are catered for as one unit." The emphasis is on living in the same place and having common provision for food and necessities for living, irrespective of size and relationship. The household heads in such identifiable units was selected to respond to the questionnaire. Such a person however had the free hand to seek for some responses or clarifications from other members of his unit who might have been part of the processes of participation or are part of issues relating to the dam.

In this research, both structured and semi-structured questionnaires were carefully prepared for the primary data collection. The questionnaire was designed in line with the objectives of the study stated earlier. It has eight (8) sections labeled A to H. Section A was to provide general information about the respondent while B was designed to generate information on socio-economic data of respondents. Section C was designed to gather information about the background of the community's participation in the planning process of the Bui project. It looks at the organisations involved, levels of information regarding the laws and policies of institutions involved in the planning process. Section D tried to find out how their communities have been integrated into the planning of the project, their fears and expectation of the project and the likelihood impact of the dam on such communities. Section E was particularly concerned with how the views and rights of marginalized groups were considered and integrated in the planning process of the dam. Such groups include women and minority ethnic groups. Furthermore, it found out how the Bui Power Authority (BP A) dealt with issues of compensation for the affected people. Section F dealt specifically with disagreements and potential sources of conflict relating to the dam, indigenous livelihood displacements and how concerns relating to disagreement and conflicts should be resolved. Finally, G dealt with suggestions on how communities, institutions and government should deal with such interventions.

3.6 ORGANISATION OF DATA COLLECTION

Primary data collection was done in two main ways: focus group discussion and household questionnaire. Both methods were employed in this study but with varying degree of emphasis. The study took cognizance of the fact that such phases (triangulation) of data analysis will lead to reliability and validity (Yeboah, 2005).

An initial reconnaissance survey was conducted from which the communities were selected. Key informant discussions, focus group discussions and questionnaires were the tools employed as appropriate though some were used for triangulation. The study was carried out in phases and stages.

3.6.1 Phase One

Phase one involved two stages. It was mainly based on reconnaissance, transect walk and key informant discussions. This was done to have a fair idea of the general outlook of the study area and to get general information from the communities involved. The outcome led to the improvement of the methodology and the questionnaire.

Stage One: A reconnaissance survey was carried out. This involved visits to the districts involved, the project site, directly and indirectly affected communities and the project community as captured by **Bui two (2)** designs. During such visits, key informant discussions were held and information recorded. It came to light that there were three clusters of impacted communities. The lists were taken from the project implementers and the District Assembly and were carefully written on pieces of papers based on each cluster given. These papers were put in a calabash cluster by cluster and one community was picked at random from the calabash. Since the researcher wanted one community from each cluster, this was done once for each cluster until the three communities were selected. The third cluster had only one community that is hosting the project. Ten compounds were selected from each of these three communities under discussion.

Stage two: This stage was necessary to form the bases for comparison with the data collected from the individual discussions during **stage one** and to determine the criteria for community participation during the various stages of the planning process. This was done with the stated objectives already in mind. See section 1.4

3.6.2 Phase two

This phase involved three stages: The use of impact diagram and network analysis among the compound houses chosen earlier, female-headed households and training of enumerators.





Stage One: Ten compounds were selected from each of these communities and the affected communities were selected purposively. This was done to identify households headed by females. However, some of the compounds selected earlier were dropped and others brought on board, because there were no females as household heads. This was done by employing the snowball sampling method until the required number was found. Impact diagram was used as a tool in showing the relationships that existed between communities in the participation process of the Bui project. It was also used to analyse fears, women access and control over resources, the rights of minority groups and compensation related issues. To do this exercise, focus group was asked to:

- List and identify the relationships that exist among the various variables.
- Identify the effects between these projects and how the various communities can analyse them.
- Indicate areas of negative influence, if any.
- Map out relationships using arrow as flows (the thicker the arrow the higher the use).

From such discussions and the ability to stimulate interactions through the use of the diagram, focus group could notice relationships among the various concepts; one could sketch good cause-effect relationship from such interactions. Furthermore, Focus group was assisted to draw more diagrams that show the cause-effect relationships and its potential to fuel conflict(s) based on the different levels of participation. From such interactions and discussions, the impact diagram was refined and improved so that social network analysis was generated and developed from it.

Social network analysis views social relationships in terms of network theory about nodes and ties. Nodes are the individual actors within the networks, and ties are the relationships between the actors. The resulting graph-based structures are often very complex. There can be many kinds of ties between the nodes that operate on many levels, from families, communities and organisations and play a critical role in determining the way problems are solved, organizations are run, and the degree to which individuals succeed in achieving their goals with respect to participation (Millar,2004).

The above therefore makes the impact diagram analysis an ideal tool for this study because the study seeks to collect data on the community participation in the planning

process of the Bui dam and how the project impact on the lives of the people and the extent of the inter- relationships among such actors.

Random selection of the sample would cut off some relevant information hence the use of this method in purposively sampling respondents. Using females only will mean cross-compound networks that will never end.

Stage two: At this stage, six enumerators and a research assistant will be trained in the use of the prepared questionnaires. The selection was based on their ability to read and write English and also the ability to translate the questionnaires into the indigenous language and vice-versa. The enumerators assisted in pre-testing the questionnaire used in the data collection as part of the training process.

3.7 SECONDARY DATA

Alongside the primary data collection, secondary data on census reports from Ghana Statistical Service, Medium Term Development Plans/District Profiles of the two districts were gathered. Other measurements as captured by existing documents that are deemed relevant for some purposes in this work were used such as the World Commission on Dams (WCD) thematic papers relating to dams. In addition to these, policy documents on energy, National Development Planning Commission, and Environmental, Social Impact Assessments (ESIA) of the Bui dam project in Ghana, academic journals and research reports, occasional papers and available speeches such as the Ghana Dams Forum, and consultative multi-stakeholder meetings were reviewed.

3.8 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is viewed by Karma (1996) as the computation of certain measures along with searching for patterns of relationships that exist among data groups. In a related study, Yin (1993) stipulated that data analysis is a number of closely related operations performed with the purpose of summarizing the data collected and organizing them in such a manner that they answer the research questions.

Based on these arguments, both qualitative and quantitative data was analysed in stages after each data collection phase. Qualitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics. Impact diagram and Network analysis tree was developed from the data.



Quantitative data analysis using statistical tools such as cross-tabulation, percentages, tables and graphs was employed (Yeboah, 2005). Charts, frequencies percentiles and averages were used by employing SPSS version 15. SPSS was used by developing a template.

I used Harvard analytical framework tool two to compare the access and control profile of gender relation in the communities. It was adopted because of its simplicity to compare gender relations such as who control or have access to what type of resources in the communities. This process involved creating variables of key issues from the questions such that specific questions could be noted. I then entered the codes into the SPSS template according to the variables created (Leech et al, 2005). Analysis was done by exploring data and generating graphs, tables, frequencies and charts.

3.9 DEPARTURE FROM RESEARCH PLANS AND LESSONS LEARNT

3.9.1 Modifications

The modification of the research design was with the selection of the study communities. The study had previously planned to study two communities from each of the two Traditional Areas of Banda and Bole. However, in discussing with the project implementers, analyzing the report on Social and Economic Impact Assessment at the various stages of the constructional process of the dam and the chiefs, it became clear that based on the design of **Bui two (2)** which was adopted by the construction firm, the communities were grouped into three (3). Based on these classifications, three clusters were identified; those affected by the project during the construction, those affected by future dam reservoir and those downstream communities. Thus, one community each was chosen at random from each cluster making them three communities.

The planned focus group discussions with heads or representatives of state organisations could not be achieved. It was also very difficult gathering sub-chiefs who felt that their colleagues are benefiting from the project implementers. Instead, in-depth interviews were done for the state organisations. This was after many appointments were booked with its attendant bureaucratic processes before interviews were finally conducted. Even



then, there were instances where the anticipated interview duration was reduced due to tight schedule of the respondents.

Some questions which were incorrectly ticked during their administration by some field assistants were detected during the daily routine work. These questionnaires were removed from the sample where possible and were replaced with rightly answered questionnaires. The planned sample size of 130 questionnaires was not met. Instead, 120 questionnaires were administered in total

3.9.2 Lessons Learnt

- The first lesson is that, research is a continuous process of planning and re-planning. Though the research design was carefully done, it could not be carried out to the latter because of the above reasons. Desk/office plans may need some modification on the field.
- Triangulation of data collection is useful as it helps in cross-checking inconsistencies of data.
- Daily reviews and summaries of field work are important in checking inconsistencies of data.



CHAPTER FOUR MAIN FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter analyses and presents data collected from the three (3) study communities. The first part considers the socio-economic characteristics of the study sample and how they relate to the issues under study. The second part attempts to answer the first and second objectives of the study that sought to find out how affected communities have participated in the planning process, and also how marginalised groups have been catered for. The third objective also sought to find out how any potential sources of conflict relating to the project may arise and the mechanism put in place to address it as well as to gather and analyse what their experiences are on the causes of conflict and what their suggestions for remedy would be.

4.1 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

As indicated in chapter three, the study was based on data collected from a sample of 87 respondents made up of 68 males and 19 females from 30 compounds. The low number of households headed by females observed was due to the high rate of migrants and economically active groups who have moved there to fish and farm.

4.1.1 Sex and Age Distribution of Respondents

The sexes by age groups are shown on Table 4.1. The distribution of the ages starts from 31-40 age groups. Household heads normally do have ages within such age groups (GSS, 2000). The lowest age group (31-40) had the highest number of respondents representing 37.9%. These are mainly migrants with small household sizes. They have come into the areas to work for sustenance and remittance to their families outside the area.



Table 4.1: Sex and Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	Male	Female	Total	Percentage
31-40	30	3	33	37.9
41-50	20	5	25	28.7
51-60	13	6	19	21.8
61-70	5	4	9	10.3
71+	1	1	1	1.1
Total	57	19	87	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

In the case of age group 41-50 and 51-60, out of the 87 questionnaires administered, 25 and 19 respondents constituting 28.7% and 21.8% respectively were household heads in the affected communities. These age groups are considered fully grown men and women who have imbibed most of the family tenets and traditions and can mobilize the communities for any development project. It is for this reason that 98.9% of respondents were drawn from the first four age groups and also constitute majority of household heads in the communities under study.

The last age group 70+ is considered to be the apex and constitute about 1.1 % of the respondents. Community perceives them to be too old to be able to lead any meaningful discussion related to the Bui dam project. The fewer representation of this age group is because most of these people were elderly and normally delegated a younger member of the family (mostly from 31 to 70) to answer the questionnaires on their behalf.

4.1.2 Ages and Marital Status of Respondents

Table 4.2 shows the marital status of the respondents according to age group. All the married respondents fall within the age groups from 31-40 to 51-60 which constitute 80.45%. This may partially explain why the communities have large household sizes of 6. Out of the 87 questionnaires administered, 6.90% and 5.80% represent single, widowed and divorced respondents respectively. The potential effect of such distribution is that large household sizes may mean that any intervention policy should take into

consideration the livelihood outcomes of the people. Couples with tradition, the widows are regarded as too old to function effectively in the participatory process used by the project implementers in the three communities.

Table 4.2: Ages and Marital Status of Respondents

Age	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced	Total	Percentage
31-40	5	24	2	3	34	39.1
41-50	-	34	1	1	36	41.4
51-60	1	12	2	1	17	19.5
71+	-	-	1	-	1	1.1
Total	6	70	6	5	87	100.0
Percentage	6.9	80.5	6.9	5.8	100	

Source: Field Survey, 2009

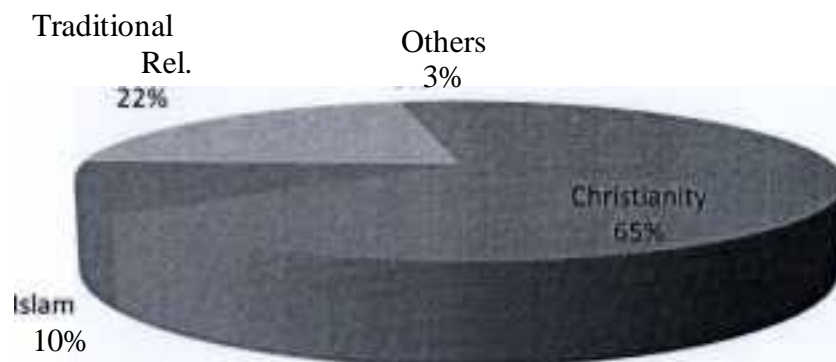
4.1.3 Religious Inclination of Respondents

Three major religions in the three communities within the two districts are Christianity constituting 72.4%, Islam 11.5% and traditional religion 24.1 % respectively. This pattern of responses indicates a strong belief in the spiritual world of the respondents. It was further observed that there was duality or people who believe and practice more than one religion in the communities. Some claimed to be either Christians or Muslims but still adhere and practice the traditional religion.



7.

Figure 4.1: Religious Inclination of Respondents



Source: Field work, 2009

4.1.4 Educational Level of Respondents

Table 4.4 shows the educational level of the respondents. 57.5% do not have any formal education, those who had secondary and vocational education constituted 27.6% and 9.2% respectively. Furthermore, the male and female respondents constitute 69.7% and 10.4% respectively. This appreciable level of education reflects the education of the staff of Bui National park and the basic schools in the three communities (Tain District Assembly, 2008).

Table 4.4 : Educational Levels of Respondents

Educational Level	Male		Female		Freq Total	(0/0) Total
	Freq	0/0	Freq	0/0		
No formal Education	48	55.2	2	2.3	50	57.5
Basic	19	21.8	5	5.8	24	27.6
Secondary	6	6.9	2	2.3	8	9.2
Voe/Tech	3	3.5	-	-	3	3.5
Tertiary	2	2.3	-	-	2	2.3
Total	78	69.7	9	10.4	87	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009



Generally, the low level of education is a concern for effective participation of the three communities in the planning process of the Bui dam project (Conye and Bellier). Education and training have been recognised as an engine for accelerated development in rural communities (Fink, 2005). With education, the three communities are better equipped to make more informed decisions in promoting active participation of the communities. The low level of education further brings to bear that knowledge of land transactions in the study communities are gotten through cultural transmission in the traditional process such as the homes, farms and social activities of people than through formal educational school systems.

4.1.5 Main and Minor Occupation of Respondents

It is clear from the Table 4.5 that, the main occupation which is farming constitutes 51.7% followed by fishing 20.7%. This statistics is a reflection of the fact that the people largely depend on land and water resources for their livelihoods. They have however diversified their sources of livelihoods to include hunting and trading among others to minimize periods of risks. The minor occupation in Table 4.5 further shows their sources of livelihoods in periods where there are adverse conditions during bad years. In the minor occupations, farming and fishing still dominate constituting 32.8% and 31.0% respectively. The idea of an additional job is a sound coping behaviour to prepare for eventual bad year. It also shows that one source of livelihood outcomes is enough to sustain the households. The high rate of farming and fishing means that the people are dependent on the land and the river for a greater part of their livelihood and any potential disruption of such sources may provoke potential unrest in the communities under study. In some cases, livelihood alteration may also occur in the other areas like tourism, 8.0%, medicine 6.9%, hunting 5.7% and teaching 3.4%. This means that all livelihoods in the three communities are likely to be altered either positively or negatively. In the Bui Two (2) design it was estimated that the annual fishery yield would be around 3,000 tons with a market value of USD 3million (Coyne and Bellier, 1995). They however, cautioned that it would be prudent to organised and regulate fishing rights in the Bui dam reservoir in the subsequent year.



Table 4.5: Main and Minor Occupations of Respondents

Main Occupation	Freq	Percentage	Minor Occupation	Freq	Percentage
Farming	45	51.7	Fish smoking	11	12.6
Fishing	18	20.7	Firewood collection	9	10.4
Civil Servant	7	8.1	Traditional medicine	8	9.2
Trading	8	9.2	Farming	32	36.8
Hunting	6	6.9	Fishing	27	31.0
Medicine	1	1.1			
Catering services	2	2.2			
Total	87	100		87	100

Source: Field survey, 2009

4.2 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE PLANNING PROCESS

The communities' participation in the Bui project is seen differently by the three communities along the river basin under study. An initial attempt was to find out whether land ownership has the potential of affecting the level of their involvement in the planning process. From the following Table 4.6, it was observed that land ownership varies from one community to the other in the study area. Out of 30 questionnaire administered in Gyaamah, 80% agreed that it was the paramount chief that owns the land while 20% said it was the Gyaamah chief. This confirms other research of land ownership in Northern Ghana that concludes that land is owned by the paramount chief of the area (Tain District Assembly, 2006; Bebbeller, 2008).



However, there were variations in the ownership of land in Bongase and Bui camp/village. Of the 27 respondents, 20 constituting 34.8% said the land is owned by the government because all the wildlife reserved lands were acquired by the government through executive instrument (LI 70) in 1972. Bongase and Gyaamah had the same number of respondents who said the lands in the community were owned by individuals and families as can be observed from table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Land Ownership in the Three Communities

Community	Comm. chief	Paramount chief	Government	Individual Family	Total	Percentage
Gyaamah	10	20	-	-	30	34.5
Bongase	5	-	-	25	30	34.5
Bui Village	2	-	20	5	27	31.0
Total	17	20	20	30	87	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

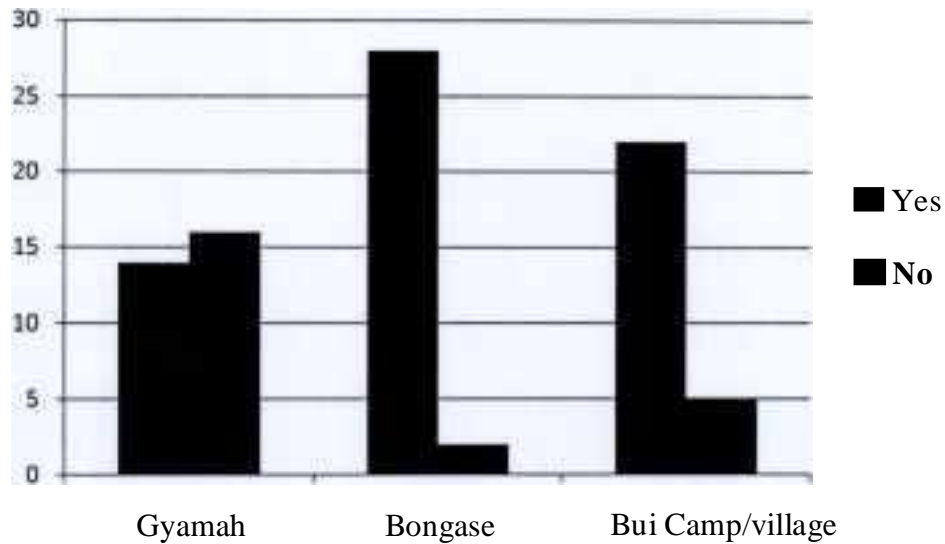
The level of participation enjoyed by the three communities varied in Gyaamah, Bongase and Bui Camp/village. It was noticed that the three communities' participation in the planning process of the Bui Dam was influenced by the ownership rights of lands. In Gyaamah community, the 34.5% of respondents said lands are owned by the community and paramount chiefs.

The rate of awareness of the commencement of the project was 46% in Gyaamah compared to 89% in Bongase and 75% in Bui camp/village. When a focus group was organized in the various communities, it became clear that those who had no knowledge were the immigrants who have settled recently to make a living. The communities are aware of the visitors and the survey activities, but complained that they were occasionally not informed of the current status of the project. In a focus group discussion with the elders at Bui Camp, show that they have been adequately informed about the Bui Dam project. This situation was also re-echoed by the elected representatives of the area at the District level but argued that more needed to be done in the participatory process of the project.

Figure 4.3 below provides information about organisations that informed the three communities about the commencement of the project. EPA which is mandated to conduct public hearing on such project fared badly compared to others in the communities. It was further observed that Zoomlion (ZL), Ghana fared better because it was involved in the spraying of the communities, and so Zoomlion(ZL) was understood as being part of the organisations that informed the community about the project. Surprisingly, BPA who is the implementer of the project did not fare well. The discussion

group did not see the need to even include them. Their arguments were that they only saw them with cars without actually engaging them in the participation process.

Figure 4.2: Informed About the Commencement of Bui Dam Project



Source: Field survey, 2009

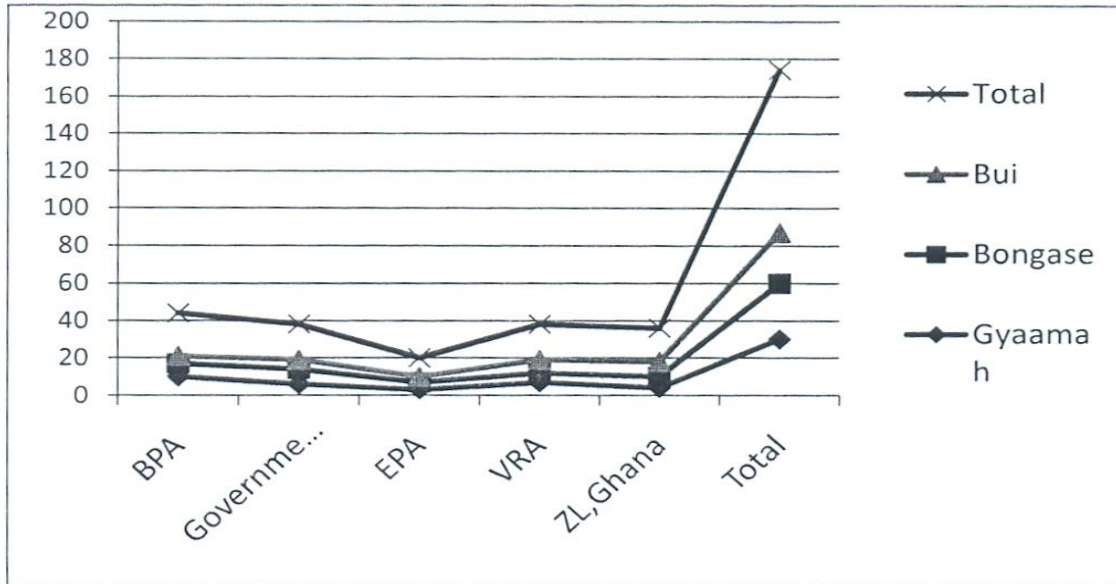
According to the women groups, Zoomlion and the government need commendation about their approach in the communities, but those at Gyaamah held a contrary view arguing that VRA should rather be commended for informing them about the commencement of the Bui dam project.

This poor show by BP A and the government actually generated interest in engaging the implementers for further discussion about the participatory steps adopted to get the three communities involved in the planning process of the Bui dam project. It was revealed that the various steps have incorporated strategies of involving the various communities in the planning process of the Bui dam project.

As mentioned in figure 4.3 above, the number of stakeholders today is much greater and more complex. Civil societies held regular regional meetings on a weekly or bi-monthly basis for representatives of the affected communities as well as independent citizens wishing to discuss their problem.



Figure 4.3: Organisations that Informed the Three Communities



Source: Field survey, 2009

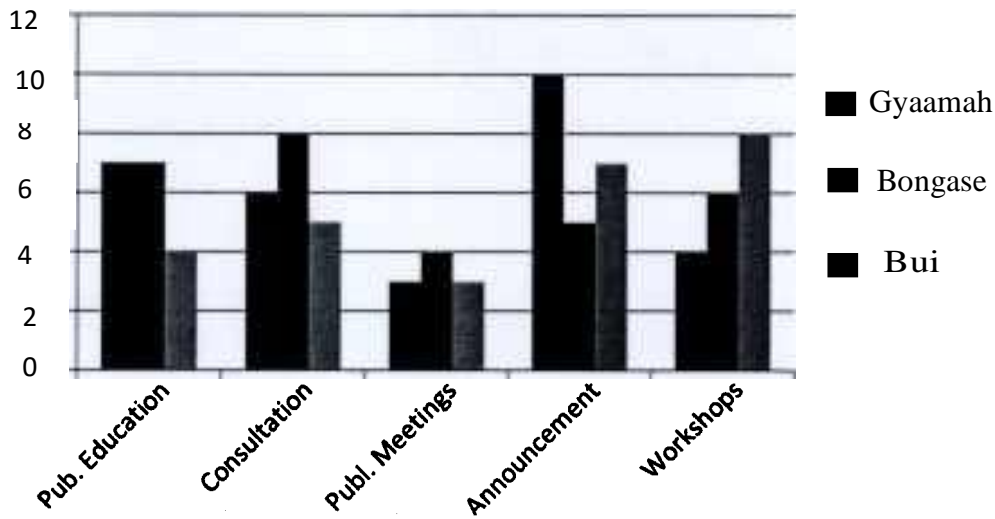
This study conducted among respondents (n=87) in three communities indicated that most representatives participate in a number of different forums. On average, community representatives participate in 2 to 3 meetings a week, and are regular attendees in 3 to 4 different forums. There were community differences, but 44% of representative participated regularly in a forum with civil societies. Almost all representatives reported participating regularly in their local fora. This finding confirms Fink(2005) work which suggested that there are significant and lasting ties between communities, civil societies, media, researchers and District/Regional settings when community are adequately inform about such project.

4.2.1 Participation During the Planning Process

In the cause of the interview, it became evident that participation was interpreted to mean active involvement in the construction of the project. However, there were variations of responses from the communities under study.



Figure 4.4: Participatory Techniques Use in the Communities



Source: Field survey, 2009

It shows more variations in the techniques of announcement constituting 26.4% in Gyaamah followed by consultation having 21.8%. This high consultation at Gyaamah was due to the new settlement constructed for the relocated communities. Furthermore, it was observed that the techniques of public meetings were 11.4% in the tree communities followed by public education and workshop constituting 20.7% respectively.

The in-depth discussion also brought to the fore the fact that there were some informal techniques adopted by the Bole and Tain District Assembly to engage the three communities. It must be emphasised that both NGOs and decentralised agencies played very little role in the process of the communities' involvement in the planning process of the Bui Dam. The informal techniques were categorised into regional and district approach and included foras at the districts and regional levels which involved occasional discussion of the potential benefits of the project. The Tain District Planning officer confirmed this when he said:

"the period of the dam initiation to the construction stages coincided with political campaign for 2008 general election in Ghana, and so politicians branded the project as a source of organising fora for popular participation and mobilisation of the masses. It



was said that it would be accompanied with a 'Bui City' and that any group of people that raised any concern was against the project".

This point was also re-echoed by the EPA regional and district representatives. They argued that formally, direct participation ought to take place within the EPA process through various instruments of participatory process. In an interview with the Regional EPA representative, he said:

"the EPA regulations provide no guidelines on how the public hearings should be conducted and how the report should look like, and how inputs from such public hearing should be incorporated into the proposal. How issues of design changes, adoption of improved management plans, and mitigation measures are considered in further regulatory processes".

It should be taken as major setbacks in how these three affected communities are involved in the planning of the Bui dam projects that has the potential of displaying a large number of the population. A representative from the Institute of Local Government Studies in Tamale was of the opinion that:

"Various weaknesses found in the Ghanaian planning laws such as lack of concrete guidelines on how to organise public hearing can be minimised by adopting the legal requirement as a basis for organising extensive stakeholders and popular participation".

In the light of these discussions, they argued that each stage in the planning process should involve steps and also adopt techniques appropriate to that stage.

There are no guidelines within EPA on how civil societies should participate in the planning process in general of the Bui Dam Project. NGOs that were initially involved were into public education and served as advocacy unit highlighting the impact of the Bui Dam Project. These bodies were the Volta Basin Development Foundation (VBDF), Integrated Social Development Centre (ISODEC) and Ghana Wildlife Society (GWS). Local NGOs, i.e., PAP ADEV and Care for the Deprived (CDC) in the Bole District were voluntarily involved in public education on the potential impact of the Bui Dam Project. In an interview with the Programme Officer of CDC, he had this to say:

Table 4.7: Participatory Techniques at the Different Stages in the Planning Process

Stages in the Planning Process	Participatory Steps
Planning	Stakeholders analysis, education and awareness creation, consultation, option creation, consensus- building
Design	Communities should have rep. in the design team, holding of public meetings
Mitigation	Public meetings, communities have rep. on the designing team, option development, impact analysis
Construction	Community's rep. to monitor progress, defusing fears of the project, regular public meetings and visits to the sites
Monitoring and Evaluation	Communities rep. on the M&E team, regular consultation and visits to the sites

Source: Authors Construct, 2009

"Not at all, our capacity and ability are not up to the task of large projects like the Bui dam. However, I believe that we can assist to mobilise and educate the people"

All the communities surveyed agreed that the stages in the planning process of the Bui project involved different techniques and steps needed to involved the communities. However, there were variations in their suggestions on participatory steps that could be employed to adequately involve Gyaamah, Bongase and Bui camp/ village.

4.2.2 Adequacy of the Communities Involvement in the Planning Process

Looking at the information gathered, there was the need to find out whether the level of participation in the planning process of the Bui dam was adequate. As can be seen in the ensuing table, the response varies from each of the communities under study. In Gyaamah, 20 out of the 30 respondents constituting 34.5% said the level of participation was not adequate. They argued that because 'of poor involvement in the planning process, compensation was not adequate, thus, the agreement between the communities and the implementers were not duly adhered to. This pattern of responses was further reinforced



in Bongase where 35.8% of the respondents also said the level of participation was not adequate. However, there were slight changes in Bui camp/ village. This was due to the fact that Bui, as the host community, had a lot of economic activities taking place. Furthermore, many members of the communities were part of the staff of the Bui game reserve, and legislative instruments were gazetted to acquire more lands south of the reserve to expand the game and wildlife. The staff was therefore involved in the demarcation of newly acquired area.

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Table 4.8: Adequacy of Communities Involvement in the Planning Process

Communities	Yes	Percentage	No	Percentage	Total	Percentage
Gyaamah	10	11.5	20	23.0	30	34.5
Bongase	11	12.6	19	21.8	30	35.8
Bui Camp	16	18.4	11	12.6	27	31.0
Total	30	42.5	50	57.1	87	100.0

Since /57.1% of the respondents said they were not satisfied, there was the need to find out what needed to be done by the implementers.



Table 4.9: What Should Be Done To Ensure Adequate Participation

What should be done	Gyaamah	Bongase	Bui	Freq	Percentage
Adequate financial support	14	6	5	25	28.7
Accelerate infrastructural develop	5	19	6	30	34.5
Regular consultation	2	2	2	6	6.9
Representative should be represented	2	5	4	11	12.6
Regular Monitoring & Evaluation	-	1	2	3	3.5
Legal enforcement of agreements	7	7	10	24	27.6
I do not know	1	-	1	2	2.3
Total	30	27	30	87	100.0

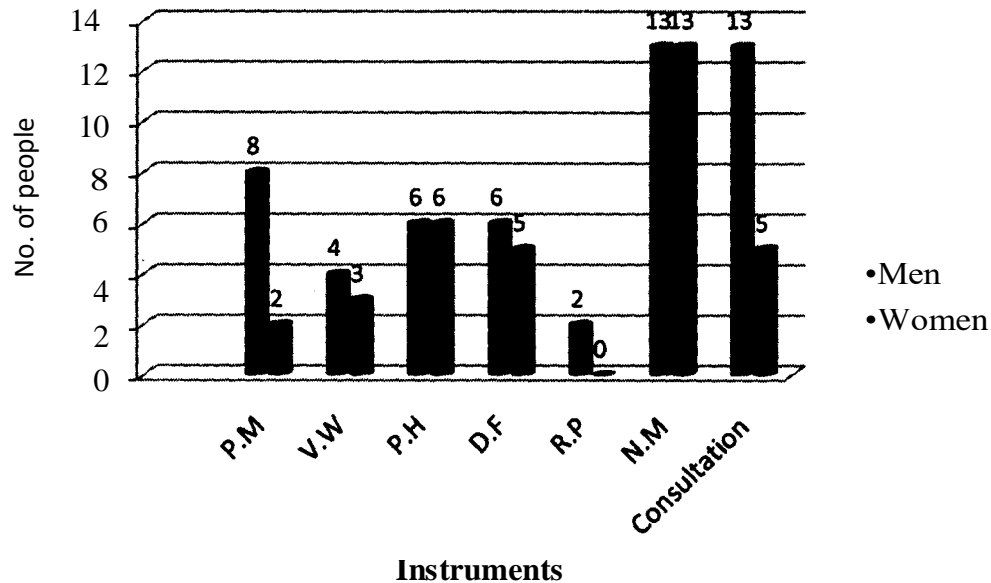
Source: Field survey, 2009

Table 4.9 provides responses to that. Regarding the responses, 28.7%, 34.5% and 27.6% preferred financial support, infrastructural development and the enforcement of laws respectively. The enforcement of law regarding the Bui dam project is to compel the implementers to abide by any agreements reached. This confirmed the view held in the Gyaamah community that the intervention initiated was seemingly inadequate.

4.3 GENDER AND PARTICIPATION

The study identified different ways in which women and men were involved in the planning process of the Bui dam. In all the three communities under study, 21.1% of the respondents agreed that they participated in the planning process while 78.9% of the respondents said they were not satisfied with the level of participation in the planning process. So far, the 21.1% participation of women who took part in the Bui project is not encouraging. Some women interviewed admitted that limited form of participation and consultation took place though ironically, 22.4% of the women had a clear idea of the kind of participation they expected. In order to find out areas and activities where women and men participated using participatory instruments, the outcome showed a mixture of a low level of women participation in planning the Bui project. The figure 4.5 indicates that women participated differently during the use of the participatory instruments.

In all the three communities, women participated equitably with men in areas of public hearings and normal meetings where various gender groups were invited on a level playing field. There were sharp contrasts in the use of other instruments as participatory tools where women did not fare well compared to their male counterpart. Women's low level of participation showed as 21.8%, 31.7%, 22.2% and 11.9% in public meetings, voluntary workshops, regional public hearings and consultations respectively with the various groups in the communities studied.

Figure 4.5: Comparing Men and Women and Their Degree of Participation

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

P.M- public meeting, **V.W-**voluntary workshop, **P.H-** public hearing, **D.F-** district forum, **R.P-** regional public hearing, **N.M-** normal meeting and consultation

4.3.1 Gender Biases in the Participatory Process

Table 4.14 shows respondents' reaction towards biases in terms of age, class and tribe. There was an evenly distributed pattern of respondents of biases in each of the three communities under study -Gyaamah, Bongase and Bui with responses being 31.4%, 34.5% and 34.1 % respectively. In the various groups of biases, with respect to age, 21.48% said there were no biases while 9.3% said there were some forms of biases in the three communities. The trend repeatedly showed up in the classes and tribes where there was a general consensus that there were no forms of biases during the participatory process.

A comparison of the proportion of women participants against the proportion of their male counterpart showed gender parity in all the communities.

However, even if female participate at the meetings, we could still expect the reproduction of inequality to occur inside the meetings that more powerful females would dominate the meetings - those of elected delegate and queen mothers. A survey question

about how often a person speaks in meetings would be able to detect some of these patterns if they were significantly present.

Table 4. 10 Biases Against Women in the Participatory Process

Community	Age		Class		Tribe	
	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Gyaamah	20	4	18	8	16	15
Bongase	15	14	27	3	30	-
Bui	23	6	15	14	15	15
Total	58	24	60	25	51	30
Percentage	21.5	9.3	25.3	9.6	20.2	12.6

Source: Field survey, 2009

A survey question: 'do you speak in meetings?' (Always, sometimes, never) administered found a parity between the delegates and queen mothers. It also found, however, that women speak at meetings less. Table 4. 11 below show the results of the question.

Table 4. 11 : Participation at Meetings by Gender

Gender	Do you speak at meetings?			Total
	Always	Sometimes	Never	
Male	10	15	18	43
Female	33	13	8	44
Total	43	28	26	87

Source: Field Survey, 2009

While there is little difference between the age and class, the difference between men and women is significant. A formal statistical statement predicting whether someone will speak at a meeting based on gender expresses that the odds of a woman being a participant is 28.3% lower than their male counterparts.





4.3.2 Access to and Control over Resources

In the context of the Bui dam project, there would be massive shifts in the ways in which men and women access and control resources across the three communities. In the survey, 100.0% of the women gained access to markets and urban facilities that were not available to them prior to the implementation of the Bui dam, and this enhanced their economic choices and activities. In the study only 20% of the women had both access and control over their resources. This confirms what Tsikata (1999) observed in the study of communities affected by the Akosombo dam where she indicated that in most cases existing inequalities in gender relations with respect to access to and control over resources are reinforced by dam projects. A further use of the **Harvard analytical framework tool 2:** the access and control profile to determine whether women or men have access to resources, control their usage and the benefits in the household revealed limitations of women access to and control of these resources.

Table 4.12: Comparing Gender Based Access and Control of Resources

Resources			Benefits		
	Women	Men		Women	Men
Land	A	A/C	Farming	A	A/C
Credits	A	A/C	Expansion of economic	A	A/C
Markets	A/C	A/C	Trading activities	A	A/C
Water	A	A/C	Fishing/drinking	A	A/C
Fuel wood	A/C	A/C	Cooking	A/C	A/C
Paid work	A/C	A/C	Livelihoods	A	A/C

Source: Field Survey, 2009

A- Access, A/C- Access and Control

As can be seen in Table 4.12, the tool reveals that;

- Both women and men have access to land but women have access to farm land while men have both access and control
- Women and men have access over paid work, though women have access only while men have both access and control.
- It is only markets and fuel woods as resources and trading activities and cooking where women have both access and control. This means that though men and

women can have access to resources in the three communities under study, men ultimately could influence its control.

This study confirmed the historical marginalization of women in their access to and control of resources as argued by Tsikata (1999) that in large projects in Ghana compensation have tended to benefit men than women. Even when women own some of the resources such as credits, farms, water and incentives, they only have access to such resources without control. 72.1% of paid works have been given to men while 27.9% were for women. These changes (power relations due to better wages) that have emerged have the potential of widening the inequalities that exist as a result of power relations in general.

This confirms the discussions with the women groups at Gyaamah community. In their words:

"We want our own fora, platforms, public meetings and consultations where we can tell the project implementer what we think about the project, and how we can contribute to the development of livelihood outcomes that will benefit us. What we hear from the men are assumptions, and such assumptions are not a reflection of the realities that we face. In a different platform the men will not see us as a threat and disrespect to their dominance".



4.4 PARTICIPATION OF MINORITY ETHNIC GROUPS

In all the three communities interviewed, it became clear that ethnic groups that are to be resettled or that live close to the river are predominantly peasant farmers or fishermen. About 15.6% of the migrant settlers who are engaged in fishing for their livelihoods were Ewes, while the rest of the respondent; Bono/Banda Dagaabas, Degs and Gonjas who are basically farmers constitute about 59.0%, 12.6%, 9.2% and 2.3% respectively. In all the three communities surveyed, there were no deliberate attempts by any institution to discriminate against any ethnic group in the participation process. Table 4.13 shows the proportion of participants among ethnic groups who had participated at meetings.

Table 4. 13: Active Participation at Meetings by Ethnicity

Ethnic Description	Ethnic Groups	Percentage	Do You Speak at meetings?		Total
			No	Yes	
Majority	Bono/Banda	59.0	8	34	42
Minorities	Ewes	15.6	10	4	14
	De gs	9.2	7	3	10
	Dagaabas	12.6	9	5	14
	Gonjas	2.3	5	2	7
Total		100.0	39	48	87

Source: Field Survey, 2009

While keeping in mind that this is a much smaller sample of participants, it is apparent that ethnic background quite affects the level of participation during meetings. A more formal statistical prediction finds that considers ethnic influence at odds with the level of participation at meetings with somebody from minority ethnic group speaking are 37% lower, but that they increase 7% for larger ethnic groups (Dagaabas and Ewes) of participation. Interaction terms and other variables were not significant predictors of active participation at meetings. While participation in this definition does not unambiguously lead us to parity, the evidence is inconsistent with the expectation of the reproduction of inequality. Certainly, the study expect clearer patterns of the minority reportedly speaking less, or of clear effect of education on these patterns, which is not apparent. Furthermore, while it does not establish that the process is exhaustive, since there is the alternate possible explanation that a person who is participant at the meetings are more active participants, it suggests that ethnic affiliation played a role. In a discussion with some of the participants, he had this to say:

'I had to learn about the process as the meetings took place. The first time I participated I was unsure, because persons who gave me Land to farm were in the meetings, so we had to wait for the others to suggest an idea first, and then enter the discussion. And there were "things" we did not want to talk about, we used to 'float. ' But with time we started to learn. '



28.3% of the survey population said there were some forms of discrimination during the participatory process while 71.7% of the survey population said there was no form of discrimination during the participatory process. This happened because the communities were all equitably invited to all arrangements that brought them together. The major strategies of participatory instruments used in each of the three communities were so effective that all communities' members were represented but there were variations as to the composition of the participants. With respect to the instruments used, 55.6% admitted that public announcements were common followed by stakeholders meetings, 16.7%, while public meetings, workshops, and regular consultation constituted 14.01%, 11.1 % and 11.1 % respectively. Most of the people interviewed said Traditional Authorities, Members of Parliaments and owners of resources constituted a greater number of people who were invited for meetings. They were however quick to add that there were a lot of meetings that they believed their MP did not participate in, or could not communicate the outcome of the meetings to them.

Another important improvement of the participatory instruments used in the participatory process was the institution of the Bui Development Secretariat that was to oversee the concerns of all people in the communities that were affected by the implementation of the Bui Dam Project.

4.4.1 Migrants in the Participation Process

The immigrants are those who move from other regions into the communities either for farming or fishing. The respondents who constitute 34.5% of the immigrants lived in Gyaamah, followed by Bongase 34.5%. Bui camp recorded the least number of migrants 31.0%. Most of the immigrants were males constituting 67.3% as against 32.7% females. It was also realised that the immigrant who came to the communities 19.6% engaged in farming activities. Those who moved in to visit their families constitute 13.7%, while others 11.8%, and were there for employment purposes. Those who were in the communities for business and funeral ceremonies constitute 5.9%, 7.8% and 4.2% in Gyaamah, Bongase and Bui respectively. There has not been any special arrangement for the participation of immigrants. Though Anane (1999) recommended for the inclusion of



all vulnerable groups in the planning process, such an effort was not exploited during the Bi dam project. Nichols and Von Rippel (2000) also categorised immigrants as people with 'unstable status' who needs attention for a sustainable water resources planning. This view confirms WCD (2000) recognition on the rights of vulnerable groups to adequately participate in the planning process of dam related projects.

4.4.2 Local Group and Participation in the Planning Process

The study examined the perceptions of the levels of participation of Chiefs, Queens, Youth, Women and migrants in the communities studied.

The likert 5-Point scale was used to ascertain the respondents' perception of the level of participation for various local level groups.

Assessment on the scale were 1 for "Highly participated", 2 for "participated", 3 for "Poorly participated", 4 for "Not Participated" and 5 for "Very Poorly Participated". A mean score of 2.5 is considered as fair or neutral and below that is considered favourably participated and above that unfavourably scored. Respondents' assessments are represented in Table 4.18 below.

From Table 4.18, respondents judged Chiefs and Queens to be the groups who participated most in the planning process. However, as many as 73.9% of the respondents perceived that the Chief was the most secured in the community while only 3.4% adjudged the queens to be the group who participated most. By this study the chiefs group was the local political group that participated most in the communities studied with a mean score of 1.26 on the scale followed by the chiefs with a score of 1.97.

Only 20.2 % assessed the youth as having strong participatory involvement while as many as 79.8% of respondents assessed them as having average participatory involvement and a mean score of 2.8. This means that the youth as a whole have an unfavourable involvement in the planning process but not as unfavourable as the women and migrants.

The situation of women is even more precarious. Only 38.3% of respondents assessed women as having average participation rights while as many as 61.7 % scored women as having weak participatory rights. The mean score is 3.6 which mean that women have weak participation in the co

Table 4.14 : Local Groups and Participation in the Planning Process

Social Groups	Percentage of Respondents (N=87 Respondents)					Mean score (N=87)
	1=Highly participated	2= Participated	3= Poorly Participated	4=Not participated	5= very Poorly participated	
Queen	73.9	26.6	-	-	-	1.26
Chiefs	3.4	96.6	-	-	-	1.97
Youth	-	20.2	79.8	-	-	2.8
Women	-	-	38.7	61.3	-	3.6
Migrants	-	6.8	16.1	16	57.1	3.97

Source: Field Survey, 2009

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Migrants were judged as the group with the most unparticipatory rights with a mean score of 3.97 on the likert scale. Surprisingly, 6.8% of respondents scored, had strong participation while 16.1 % scored them average, as many as 73.3% scored indicated unfavourable participatory rights in the communities.

These differences in participatory rights by the groups above attest to what Fink (2005:47) claims that:



"... The process of communities' participation in planning Bui dam project is inherently a political process based on power relations among members of the social group. That is, membership in the social group is, by itself, not a sufficient condition for participating in the planning process of Bui dam project. A person's status ... can and often does determine his or her capacity to engage in participatory planning process".

The results above are not surprising. Chiefs are the custodians of lands and the communities and people are normally drawn from such communities based on the power relations of the residents in the communities (Anane, 1999)

4.4.3 'New Settlement' and Participation

In the survey, it was observed that the resettlement at Gyaamah in the Northern part of the dam complained of difficulty in accessing their livelihoods. Table 4.19 provides respondents' reaction of services that are accessible by the people in the communities. There were mix responses in the three communities. All services or resources such as

markets, education, transport and health that were provided by the state were accessible in the communities while those services which have to do with culture were relatively not accessible in the communities as can be seen. Access to groves, water points, totems and sacred sites were not easily accessible by the respondents and that limited their rights to the use of those resources. '1' represents high accessibility, '2' represents low accessibility while '3' represents not accessible. The various numbers in the table indicate the degree of representation of how each services are either accessible in the community or not.

In order to confirm such responses, a discussion was held at new sites with the elders who expressed the concern that:

"A lot of us came several years ago with our grandfathers to our former villages in the Brong-Ahafo portion of the river and through the direction of our ancestors, we finally settled at those locations. Unfortunately, the project implementers have relocated us onto the Northern fringe of Northern Region (Gyaamah) about which we are not happy. Even, the distance from the river to our settlement is far; we have also lost our cultural ties with our ancestral sites. As the first settlers of those places, we had discovered the likes and dislikes of the earth god, water spirits such that we are able to communicate with them. He shows (...) where to fish in the river, (...) some drinks may be offered to them with regards to how to live in harmony with the land and water"

They argued that in their former village their totems were the crocodile and the hippopotamus. In those communities, there were uncultivated land and a place declared unsuitable for fishing on special days (*Jopo*) in the name of the powers of the spirits of their ancestors. This narration goes to confirm the fact that their rights may have been infringed upon as a result of the relocation.

The three communities -Gyaamah, Bongase and Bui along the project site have over the years put in place varied measures that safeguard the locally available resources. Among the Deg, Ewes, Dagaaba and the Banda, natural resource management have found expressions in many different ways.

Table 4. 15: Accessibility of Services for New Site and the Communities

Rights	Gyaamah		Bongase	Bui
	Old	New		
Access to Education	1	1	1	1
Access to Health	2	2	2	2
Access to Transport	1	1	1	1
Access to Market	2	2	2	2
Access to fishing	3	2	3	3
Access to farming	1	1	1	2
Access to burial sites	1	3	1	2
Access to cultural tides	1	2	1	1
Access to grooves	1	3	3	3
Access to totems	3	3	3	3
Access to water points	1	2	3	3
Access to sacred sites	3	3	3	3

Source: Field Survey, 2009

1= High Accessibility, 2=Poor Accessibility, 3= Not Accessible



Belief systems such as totemism, ancestocentrism, taboos, folklores, proverbs and other forms of symbolism provide avenues for local community institutions to imprint the values and norms on the minds of people through processes of socialization. In fact, they were predominantly featured in the interviews and discussions though with variations across the cultural barriers.

4.5 CONCERNS IN THE PLANNING PROCESS

There have been several concerns relating to the construction of the Bui Dam Project. Due to the integrated nature for water resources planning, any person that has any sphere of influence in the affected communities needs to be involved. Table 4.21 provides the concerns of the communities, the top five concerns identified in the three communities. They are also ranked in order of importance as indicated by the respondents in the communities. Each of the concerns will be looked at in details in the subsequent analysis.

In Kalitsi (2004) analysis of compensation in Bui dam project, he asserted that compensation either in cash or kind should move along with resolving some of the critical concerns of the affected communities.

Table 4. 16: Ranking of Communities Concerns

Concerns	Gyaamah	Bongase	Bui camp	Freq.	Percentage
Electricity	9	11	5	25	28.7
Human health	7	7	8	22	25.3
Infrastructure	10	8	10	28	32.2
Employment	4	4	4	12	13.8
Total	30	30	27	87	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Table 4.16 examines communities concern within the sample. It shows that 32.2 % of the respondents have infrastructure as a major concern while, 28.7% demanded electricity, and 25.3% and 13.8% raised human health and employment respectively.

These concerns are discussed first in relation to how communities concerns are related to the extent of community's participation in the planning process. The Table 4.16 and Table 4. 17, presents the mean and standard deviation, and one- way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of how communities concerns affect communities' participation in the planning process.

Table.17: Mean and Standard Deviation of Communities Concerns

Communities	Freq.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error
Gyaamah	30	27.9	12.2411	2.5526
Bongase	30	27.9	13.7754	3.443
Bui camp	27	31.2	8.3190	2.5085
Total	87	24.21	12.5813	1.7792

Source: Field Survey, 2009



Table 4.18: One - Way Analysis of Variance: The Extent to Which Concerns Affect Communities Participation

	Sums Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Between Groups	920.343	2	420.172	3.164	<.05
Within Groups	6835.834	43	145.443	-	-
	7741.180	49	-	-	-

Source: Field Survey, 2009

The one -way ANOVA in Table 4.21 reveals that communities concerns inherent in the participation process are manifested differently with respect to the three communities [F {2.45}= 3.165, P< .05]. The implication of these analyses is that community's participation is independent of how their concerns are address. This view is supported by Fink (2005) and Ofori (2006) who argued that the extend of communities participation in the planning process are not necessarily related to how their concerns are being addressed. These concerns are further discussed in the ensuing analysis.

4.5.1 Provision of Electricity



Ghana as at 2006 faced critical energy shortages due to the dwindling water level at the Akosombo dam. Communities around the catchment areas of the Bui dam project also lack adequate sources of electricity. In the survey, 39.6% of respondents considered the provision of electricity in the affected communities as the reason for supporting the construction of the dam. 67 % of the stakeholders interviewed in the three communities said the project had the potential of increasing the availability of energy for the nations and for the affected communities. Though, the communities and other stakeholders had varied views regarding the impact of the project, they still saw the need for it to be constructed to open up the area for an accelerated development. In an interview with the chief and elders of Banda -Ahenkro they said:

"the government of the NPP promised us with a 'Bui City', that will comprise, University, Hospital, schools, modern market; a city with all features of a modern life"

4.5.2 Employment Generation

Due to the perceived risk involved in rural economic activities, a lot of households constituting 78.2% of the respondents agreed that the construction of the project will create a lot of employment. According to the project consultant, an estimated number of 1,000 to 1,800 workers were working in the project area. He further indicated that the number would rise because of the various stages involved in the construction process and its labour requirement. Apart from generating employment in the construction and operation of the dam, multiplier effects of employment creation were expected in investments in the dam, which would create avenues in the fields of services, trading and transport (Acres, 2001; Fink (2005). In a focus group discussion with the youth association at the various communities, their words were that:

"Our challenges are the lack of skill personnel with respect to the technical areas of the opportunities. The second challenge is the low wages that they pay to unskilled workers. Furthermore, because it involves more tedious work, more women have not been employed which has made them marginalized".

4.5.3 Provision of Infrastructure

There were variations in the request from the three communities. The Table 4.24 provides a vivid picture of the variations with respect to the type of infrastructure they expected. 34.48% of the respondents requested for schools while the expectation for roads and health centre constituted 19.54% respectively. Issues of markets were the least demanded because they argued that if the roads were improved, they could travel to the urban centre to transact business.

In a discussion with the project engineer, he said there were plans to construct a permanent bridge immediately downstream of the Bui dam. In addition, mobile telecommunication network through the establishment of based-stations help to improve the daily mobile Telecommunication. This would make relatively inaccessible areas of the Bui project more accessible. In an interview with the Regional Civil engineer, he indicated that:



Table 4.19 Requests for Infrastructure

Communities	Infrastructure	Respondents	Percentage
Gyaamah/Bongase/Bui	Schools	30	34.5
	Roads	17	19.5
	Markets	10	11.4
	Health centre	17	19.5
	Community centre	15	17.2
	KVIP	15	17.2
Total		87	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

"The construction of such facilities would invariably create new business opportunities, reduce vehicle operational cost and invariably put money in the pockets of the rural folks. However, another challenge militating against the efficient development of the rural areas that experience large projects, especially donor funded ones, is the lack of coordination in planning among the various agencies responsible for the awarding and funding of the construction of feeder roads in particular".

With respect to the provision of social services, Fink (2005) suggested the provision of some basic amenities for settled communities such as borehole for potable water supply, public toilet facilities, and basic school for each communities, health post, one secondary school and market. Unfortunately, the provision of these services is within the domain of the affected District Assemblies who were not actively involved in planning the Bui project. In an interview with the District Planning Officer of both the two affected Districts, they admitted that "The cost may run into huge sums of money due to the fact that there are numerous communities dotted around the dam site. This confirms the figure Coyne et Bellier (1995) suggested as about USD450, 000 for the provision of social infrastructure to the communities. In an interview with the chairman of Volta Basin Development Foundation (VBDF) he suggested that there should be a special fund that should be allocated for care and maintenance of projects in communities that are affected



by the Bui project. Looking at the history of both Akosombo and Kpong, it is evident that services that were provided for affected communities have deteriorated to an extent that they need maintenance though money for maintenance was not provided for during the planning and interventions process.

4.5.4 Human Health

The main health problems that were recorded from the three communities were bilharzias, malaria and intestinal complications. In a discussion with the Wenchi Municipal Health Director for Health Services he said the:

"Prevalence rates of urinary bilharzias recorded within the three communities are ranging between 70% and 75% in Bongase and Gyaamah and in Bui camp and Village the rate of 100% have been recorded among the school children. In its simplest form, the control of Schistosomiasis is by avoidance or no contact with infected water, refraining from defecating and urinating into water bodies though this involves change of human behaviour which makes the control more complex".

Malaria responded to the change in hydrology in various ways as the absence of pools during flood times reduced the number of mosquito breeding areas though the increased density of people in the Gyaamah area has the potential of increasing the rate of transmission.



4.6 COMMUNITIES - BUI POWER AUTHORITY RELATIONSHIPS

4.6.1 Compensation as a Source of Conflict

Over 67.1% of the communities interviewed said the mode of compensation was not satisfactory. 10.4% said it was satisfactory while 24.5% of the respondents in the three communities said it was poorly handled. The losses recognised for compensation were captured during a discussion with the BPA as shown in Table 4.20. Except in the case of land and rivers where there are variations in the Brong-Ahafo and Northern Region with stool lands and skin lands respectively, the other losses and their modes of compensation are the same.

In an interview with the lands commission representative from the two affected regions they admitted that the USD 3.4 million budget proposed by Coyne et Bellier (1994: IV -

35) for the resettlement and compensation of affected communities looks generous taking the poor state of housing and infrastructure into account though it was technically inadequate, because no allocation whatsoever has been made towards livelihood restoration.

Table 4.20: Losses Eligible for Compensation

Asset type	Types of Looses	Types of affected Person		Compensation Strategy (Entitle't dues
		BIA	N/R	
Land/River	Loss of ownership, Loss of use , Restriction on use, Loss of use of forest products	Stools, families, individuals, lessees, government	Skins, Government, Skin	Cash payment at full market value or offer of replacement land, Cultivation/fishing may continue subject to restrictions, Payment for diminution in value, Cash payment at full value Access to alternative forest/wood land/fishing
Structures	Loss of living quarters Loss of commercial/ Business/Temporary Structures	Families, Individuals, host, squatters , Owners		Cash payment at full market value or full replacement cost or offer of replacement houses, Resettlement assistance, Assistance based on transportation rates for relocation
Business/ Occupation	Displacement from rented or occupied, commercial/business premises.	Tenants/ owner		Full compensation on establishment of nature of loss, Comparable open market rent for alternative accommodation for reinstatement period, Transportation rates for relocation of chattels
Income/ Trees	Income /crops	Tenant farmer, Land Owner, sharecropper Affected ,Person		Cash compensation
Community and Cultural sites	Schools, markets, health centers, Shrines, Places of worship (church, mosque), Cemeteries, burial sites, and grooves.	Communities, religious leaders, Trustees.		Construction of replacement properties at suitable sites. Pacification rites/full payments for replacement. Offer of equivalent land and pacification rites. Payment in kind/cash based on negotiation. Offer equivalent land
Infrastructure	Roads, bridges, utilities	Communities/ Affected per		Repairs, rehabilitation or replacement Offer mutually agreed compensation

Source: Authors construct 2009

They further intimated that the budget only listed housing, compensation of farmlands and provision of social infrastructure, but neither included the acquisition and preparation of alternative land and training programmes as issues to help the resettlers adapt to their new environment. VRA Trust Fund Director confirmed this revelation by saying:

"The VRA Resettlement Trust Fund has been engaged mainly in activities related to education, water, health and electricity. The concerns of settlers about poor condition of road, harassmt of settlers because of non-payment of compensation by Government for land are true to some affected people, but others want to exploit the loopholes to their

advantage. Though, the Trust Fund has done a good job so far looking at the 'core' mandate, there is still a serious issue that needs to be addressed. I will suggest that a similar Trust be set up for Bui but drawing from the short comings of what we have today. The legal regime of Ghana has listed asset categories related to Bui dams. Losses and issues of restriction or displacement needed measures to deal with or mitigate. They involve land, structures, economic trees, business, crops, incomes, community and cultural facilities, infrastructure and environmental quality though less has been done to fulfill all these ... "

In an attempt to find out about the nature of their complaints and displeasure so far, the following were some of the specific complaints registered in the three communities. In Bongase and Bui, resettlement had not taken place and so the responses were not available. Generally, it can be observed from the Table 4.26 that the resettlement packages that involved the provision of 'core' housing units all performed poorly. The only good performance came from the working capital given to men. The compensation was either rated as 'very good', 'good' and 'poor' and reflects a description of various complains registered in the three communities

Table 4.21: Reactions on Issues of Compensation

Complains	Gyaamah	Bongase	Bui
Inadequate 'core' housing	poor	*NIA	NIA
Poor quality 'core' houses	Poor	NIA	NIA
Slow payment of compensation	poor	Poor	Poor
Preventing people from access to old sites	poor	Good	Good
Have not yet receive allotment titles	poor	Poor	Poor
Inadequate working capitals promised	Good	NIA	NIA
I) Men			
II) Women	poor	NIA	NIA
Inadequate compensation	poor	NIA	NIA
Inadequate coverage of loses for compensations	poor	Poor	Poor

*NIA: Not applicable in the community

Source: Authors construct 2009

4.6.2 Source of Fears in the Communities

In an analysis of communities' fears, the responses vary among the three communities. 24.14% of the respondents raised the issues of health as a major fear followed by alteration of biodiversity, and inadequate compensations consisting of 18.39% and 17.24% respectively, and this reflects varying degrees of fears in the communities. From the survey, the institutional administrators have in-depth knowledge of fears much better than the affected communities.

Good quality participation has many elements that try to alley the fear of the three communities in the implementation of the Bui dam project. In a discussion with the Executive Director of BDS he provided that:

Table 4.22 Fear towards the Bui Dam Project

Fears	Gyaamah	Bongase	Bui	Total	Percentage
Livelihood Displacement	5	2	2	9	10.3
Gender Inequality	3	4	2	9	10.3
Physical displacements	3	0	4	7	8.1
Poor participation	4	3	4	11	12.6
Health concerns	5	11	5	21	24.1
Alteration of biodiversity	3	6	7	16	18.4
Inadequate compensation	7	5	3	15	17.2
Total	30	30	27	87	100.0

Source: Authors Construct, 2009

" the decision-making process is agreed through negotiation, ensuring the inclusion or representation of all groups affected by the decision, thorough exploration of needs and problems through joint fact-finding, agreement on problems and criteria before going on to put forward solutions and joint exploration of solutions. Impacts are critical ingredient for project-affected people that relate to land. However, it must be stressed that inadequate decision-making procedures are not the only source of disagreement and fears over the Bui dam project".

4.7 INSTITUTIONS AS SOURCES OF CONFLICT

Due to the complexity of the nature of the stakeholders participating in the Bui project, the other problematic area for the planning process was the non involvement of the Ghana Irrigation Development Authority (GIDA). The Ministry of Energy (MoE) which is the lead agency in hydropower generation in Ghana sidelined GIDA in this circumstance with regards to the utilization of the dam as an irrigation facility. In an interview with GIDA, they conceded that they felt sidelined in the planning process of the dam. There was no opportunity for them to share their opinion on the potential of the project to serve as an irrigation facility for the benefit of the agrarian communities round the dam. Such a frustration was expressed in the following words in a discussion with GIDA as:

"Today we feel excluded from decision making in the planning process of the Bui dam project. Meanwhile, they are aware that the feasibility study included irrigation development"

With the current planned and existing irrigation dams in Ghana, Bui is not included as a potential dam for irrigation. From a discussion with the Ministry of Energy, Bui is seen first as an energy project before any other uses would be included in their subsequent or appropriate planning stages. When asked at what stage he felt GIDA ought to be included, he had this to say:

"The Kpong dam project initially did not include GIDA but when they were later integrated into the project, they were able to perform better".

With this revelations therefore, adequate communication and proper consultation at the proper stage of planning and participation of stakeholders such as GIDA ought to be taken care of so that it does not create mistrust or conflict between two government institutions which have complementary roles with regard to the Bui project. Such mistrust though dormant, can create its own conflict that can spill over to other institutions. Another potential source of conflict involves lands in different traditional areas. The inundation of the reservoir will occupy a large area of land where different ethnic groups

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and their paramountcies spread over these large areas with heterogeneous land ownership rights. In an interview with the Bandahene at Banda, he claimed to have ownership rights of all the lands in the Brong Ahafo portion of the dam. The Bolewura in Bole also claims ownership of all the lands in the Northern Region portion of the dam but the two paramount chiefs have competing claims of the Bui National Park creating a large multiple layers of land ownership exactly in the same area of the future dam reservoir. Though both chiefs receive modest yearly compensation from the forestry commission as a lease for the area of the Bui national park, the future dam may create competing rights over the future inundated dam which is seen as permanent usage and annexation from the paramount chiefs.

Another potential conflict trigger is the enskinment of a paramount chief at the North Mo (Deg) traditional area in 1992. The position of the newly enskined chief goes with land rights over an area previously own by the Gonja traditional Council. This condition may produce a protest from the Degs about the compensation rights that may be perceived as 'big' from the government which can lead to conflict if not well managed. With such competing scenario, prolong dispute is likely since both chiefs may perceive the compensation as 'substantially big'. The situation is even seen as worrying where agitation from some chiefs from the Brong Ahafo about their perceived exclusion from the decisions regarding compensation packages is looming. They argued that the project implementers were dealing directly with individual settlers who do not own land without the consent of the chiefs. In an interview with the Gonja traditional council, the newly enskined Yagbon-Wura at Damongo expressed the view that:

"We were excluded from the membership of Bui Development Board. Such exclusion is an attempt to cede the authority of control of our rights to others which at the right time we shall reject".

Another area of complication is the issue of compensation for acquired lands. Under the traditional Ghanaian land tenure system (though there are variations between the north and South of the two traditional areas), the chiefs are supposed to use part of all monies received from land leased for development activities to benefit all their subjects because he is usually a custodian of the lands on behalf of the people. However, in many

instances, these royalties have generated more disagreements resulting in chiefs and their communities going in tango over the use of such revenues. Awareness of these conflicts is an essential pre-condition for a successful Bui dam planning process, and how communities should participate in dam related projects. An interview with GHANEP and the two Regional peace councils provided a serious mismatch on how issues of conflict have been integrated in the planning process. One of the interviewees said:

"Well, we have two dams already and nothing of that nature has ever happened, so I don't expect this minor incidence to go that far. When it comes, we shall manage it or the police can contain it".

Apart from closely consulting the traditional leaders and being ready to compensate them generously, no meaningful attempts were made to include them adequately in the planning process and the communities' participation in designing alternative livelihood outcome.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study sought to investigate three major areas: communities' participation in the planning process, concerns of minority groups and the potential sources of conflict relating to the dam. This chapter presents a summary of research findings and conclusion on the issues of planning and community participation of dam-affected people on the Bui project area based on the evidence from the field.

5.1 Summary

The study examined how the people of Bongase, Bui camp and Gyaamah who are affected by the dam project have participated in the planning process. It considered the various ways in which the project implementers involved the affected communities in their planning process of the Bui project. A critical reflection on planning theory in an integrated water resource within the context of weak sub-national structures in the planning process implies that the implementers alone cannot serve the interest of those affected by the project. Though, participation in the planning process is improving at Bui dam project, the opportunities available for vulnerable people to participate needs an improvement. This summary intends to revisit the problem that was investigated, the methodology used, the finding and to highlight some constraints and opportunities.

5.2 Communities Participation in the Planning Process

The analysis of the data shows that a mixture of participatory instruments was employed by the implementers of the Bui dam project to involve the three communities in the planning process. Clear variations exist in the usage of the instruments within the three communities. Their opinion was that, though, they were involved in the planning process, there were still grey areas that had not been address. In the study, it was observed that the fora were mainly used for engaging organised groups and institutions and this could not offer a direct way of forwarding the concerns of the communities to the project implementers.

In Gyaamah community, a lot of the people were not adequately involved in the planning process of the dam. While they acknowledge that various meetings were organised with the chiefs of the village, there are serious discontent about the degree of involvement. A very important issue that the information from organised groups and institution brings to the fore is how to organise an effective participation looking at the heterogeneous nature of the people in the district and the various power dynamics involved within the various interests in the resources rights. There are hidden fears and conflicts between the various interested parties that lay claim to the land in the communities. While the chiefs agree that they were consulted in the planning process, the people and the chief of Bole thinks otherwise.

Generally, the various participatory instruments use in the three communities should have been conducted by involving different interest groups. Such groups have different livelihood sources such as fishing or farming, women and settler groups who also have different socio-cultural settings. In the light of this development, it was only Bui village and camp that said the instruments used in the participatory process were adequate while Gyaamah and Bongase thought they were not.

All the communities agreed that in the wake of such shortcomings they should be assisted with financial support, accelerate infrastructural development and institute a law enforcement regime that can exert some pressure on the implementers.

5.3 Integrating their Concerns in the Planning Process

Generally, concerns raised by the three communities were those of the need to provide electricity, create employments, infrastructure, provide alternative livelihood outcomes and health related issues.

With respect to provision of electricity there were consensuses in the communities that electricity should be provided alongside the construction of the dam. At Gyaamah for instance there were frantic efforts to get them connected to the national grid and the surrounding communities in the Northern portion of the dam.

Another area that generated a lot of interest was the issue of employment during and after the construction of the Bui dam project. The study found out that though, the labour force available in the communities were mainly unskilled labours, they wanted to be employed





in the skill department. Infrastructures in the form of schools, health centre, KVIPs, markets and potable drinking water were also an issue that were raised by the three communities under study. Sustainable livelihoods were also another critical area that they expressed their fear. A lot of them are farmers and fishermen who depend solely on such resources and wanted the implementers to compensate them when the need arises. Several factors were taken into consideration before those concerns were raised such as inundation of large fertile lands by the reservoir, restriction in access to fishing sites, and seasonal fishing.

5.4 Sources of Conflict in the Communities

General sources of conflicts in the three communities were similar but not the same and could be group into; communities- BP A relations and institutional conflicts.

Communities- BP A sources of conflicts were those resulting from compensations either through cash or in kind during the construction and resettlement process such as 'core' housing, land title registration, blocking their livelihoods sources, health related fears and lost of cultural ties ..

The institutional sources of conflicts are those emanating from traditional authorities and overlapping land rights within the affected areas. This are not the same in all the three communities due to different cultural land ownership rights between the northern part comprising Gyaamah and Brong-Ahafo portion of Bui camp/ village and Bongase. The relationships between the various organisations involve in the planning process were also a source of conflict. The inability of BP A to fully involve GIDA in the planning process about the alternative uses in which the dam could be put into also raised fear of lack of adequate participation in the planning process between organisations in the Bui dam project.

5.5 CONCLUSION

What does these finding mean for communities involvement in the planning process of Bui dam project in Ghana? Firstly, in view of the sheer number of literatures on community participation in dam related projects in Ghana, it is quite clear that

community participation within the various stages of the planning process must concentrate on addressing the general problems of Bui dam project planning process in Ghana.

The second problem would have to do with a broad based consultation of all stakeholders especially marginalized groups such as women and minority ethnic groups on dam planning process. One way would be the establishment of institutional framework to deal exclusively with them. Furthermore, the non-decentralized governmental agencies that are involve in the energy sectors would have to be decentralize when planning large dam and means of legal enforcement place on the implementers if the renege on their promises. In addition, all losses should be adequately compensated.

Though, various stakeholders forum have been organized, it is better for the government to start compensating all stool and skin lands that are likely to be inundated by the reservoir so that the experiences of Akosombo and Kpong do not repeat itself at Bui.

The anticipated challenges that still remain are the question of who can and who should initiate the first steps to realise improvement on the planning process of Bui. These complexities notwithstanding, it is the view of this study that adequate community participation in the planning process of Bui dam project can bring equitable sharing of dam benefits.



5.5.1 Revisiting Research Questions and Objectives

The overall objective of the study is to examine the extent of community participation in the planning process of large dams with special references to the Bui dam project. The study revealed that the degree of community participation in the planning process of Bui dam has improved compare to earlier dam project in Ghana but there are still challenges. In examining the first objective and answering the first research question, it was realised that community participation in the planning process of Bui dam is based on the continuous physical presences of community members on the various scheduled interactions that draws the people closure to attend meetings, workshops without addressing power inequalities between the implementers and the communities. As such, participation has been understood differently by the community members and even where

they have been engaged it has been an avenue to inform them about what project implementers are/ wants to do.

The second objective was to find out how their concern have been handle and taken care off with respect to the implementation of the dam. The study in answering the accompanying research question, observed that the main concerns of the affected communities have not been adequately addressed. Secondly, core housing facility have not been adequately handled creating a lot of mistrust between the communities and the implementers. Finally, it was found that, during the initial discussion with the affected communities a lot of promises were made which was never met and therefore most felt that they have been cheated. The study also noted that, the lack of access to written documents by the affected communities could be a potential source of future disagreements.

The third objective bordered on whether the consents of the marginalised groups have been catered for. It was ascertained that marginalised groups women, migrants/ settlers and minority ethnic group were not adequately consulted in the planning process. The findings concluded that there was the need to enforce or institute regulations that could make it difficult to renege on their promises. The study revealed that there were very weak lower level institutions at the regional and district levels that should be involve in the planning process of large dam. Furthermore, the weak linkages between state and traditional institutions in the formulation and implementation of participatory policies in Bi dam project needs more attention. At the intra-institutional levels, there existed frequent and stronger linkages in the informal sector than at the formal institutional set up due to the large number of institutions that need to be consulted.

The fourth objective set was to find out the potential areas of disagreement and how best to minimised them. It was observed that due to the overlapping nature of land rights and ownership and the claims and counter- claims of land rights conflicts were bound to occur. It _further establishes that in an attempt to deal with those hot -spots, indigenous resolution strategies should be adopted.

Finally, the fifth objective was also set to review state policies in attempting to answer the low level of community participation in the construction of large dams in Ghana. This is done extensively in the literature review chapter. It was established that state intervention in participatory approaches for large facility siting have been inadequate. It was further concluded that much has been done with respect to Bui with establishing of Ghana Dams Forum and Bui Development Secretariat as compare to the older Dams in Ghana but much more needs to be done.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

It needs to be stress that time is of the essence in putting up measures to enhance the socio-economic aspect of the project and remedial measures put in place to ensure that the three communities are not worse off than before and also take their due share in the benefits of the project.

5.6.1 Adequate Stakeholder Consultation

To achieve these objectives extensive stakeholder consultation must be carried out especially involving those affected at various stages of the planning process. Stakeholders propose for the participatory process should include the District Assemblies, representatives of government departments and NGOs actively working in relevant fields, paramount and village chiefs of the affected area, and specifically target groups in the affected communities such as women, the excluded, minorities and the youth. The communities should be regarded as equal partners and must be given adequate time to offer their consent to Bui dam projects before its implementation.

5.6.2 Settlements

The resettled community at Gyaamah should be given the chance to be active players in decision-making with regards to where they would want to be relocated and who should serve as their host communities. There is the need for BP A to demonstrate serious commitment to the adaptive mechanisms and coping strategies of displaced and resettled community at Gyaamah in order to promote their total welfare and sustained livelihoods.

Regular consultations between project managers and representatives of affected communities should be sustained.

5.6.3 Process of Compensations

It is recommended that the dam affected communities should have their bare lands, farm crops, economic trees valued and paid for in cash. Land and whatever crops are on it should be purchased from the hosts at the new sites and fully paid for. Each relocated person and host farmer should be given farming land to enable him continue his economic activities. The land should be cleared, prepared for cultivation and allocated on a lease basis to the settlers as well as the hosts whose lands were acquired and paid for at the new site. The size of the allocation should be same as the settler or host farmer cultivated before. The lease rate should be mutually agreed upon by the parties involve and should be calculated per acre per year initially and be adjusted every 5 years. The lease should be for a term of 99 years, be renewable and inheritable.

5.6.4 Land Title Registration

Title documents, covering houses and lands should be given to persons allotted housing and farming plots. Bui Power Authority should assume responsibility for settlements for at least ten (10) years, which is a reasonable time for settlers at Gyaamah to adjust to their new economic and social environment. The study found out that the main source of insecurity is the lack of documentation of land transaction. It is therefore recommended that all land related issues should be adequately and efficiently handle.

5.6.5 Improve Institutional Collaboration

GIDA and BPA should be more efficient and collaborate more on an alternative use of the dam. A proposal should be made to the Ministry of Agriculture to prepare a programme to support the settlers with extension services, supply of seedlings insecticides, fertilizer to continue their traditional forms of farming. Similarly, those engage in fishing should be assisted to purchases fishing nets, canoes and other facilities that may enhance their work.

5.6.6 Conflict Resolution

It is recommended that the public needs to be kept informed about the progress of resolving disputes. They should completely identify and analyse the grievances among the chiefs, settler farmers and BP A before the government should try to solve it. Government and civil societies involve in conflict resolution should pay as much attention to implementing the agreement as to resolving the agreement. Mechanisms must be included as part of the agreement that ensure that issues can be renegotiated if parties do not implement their part of the agreement fully, or if elements of the agreement are affected by unforeseen events. Full participation of government regulatory agencies such as GIDA and Ministry of energy by demonstrating their willingness to use consensus building and to provide greater incentive to other stakeholders. BP A should provide sufficient financial resources to parties in need of assistance to ensure their meaningful involvement in each of the stages of the cycle of the planning process.

5.6.7 Legal Enforcements

Furthermore, the need for enforceable standards should be emphasise. This suggestion is made so that the legal regime should recommend the establishment of some kind of national 'Ombudsman' or 'Tribunal' to oversee the implementation of such standards as indicated by the various mitigation measures.



5.6.8 Gender Mainstreaming

The study finally argued that gender mainstreaming should be taking seriously so that women and men are equitably represented. Unless these are addressed, the goals of equity, fair and just distribution of resources will not be addressed in the communities. But as observed in Bongase community, women are able to borrow knowledge and build on experience particularly in their homes. There is therefore the need to enhance women participation by allowing their active involvement at all levels of the planning process in Bui dam project.

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APPENDIX A: INDIVIDUAL/HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE COMMUNITIES PARTICIPATION IN THE PLANNING PROCESS OF BUI DAM PROJECT IN MID-WEST, GHANA.

A. General Information

- 1)Community name
- 2)Compound name
- 3)Name of compound Head
- 4)Compound Number
- 5)Name of Interviewer

B. Bio-Data of Household Head

- 6) Name of Respondent;
- 7) Gender: a) Male b) Female
- 8) Age group:
a) 31-40 b) 41-50 c) 51-60 d) 61-70 e) 71+
- 9) Religious inclination: a) Christian b) Muslim c) Traditional Worship
d) Other(s)
- 10)Level of Education: a)No formal education b) Basic c) Secondary d) Voc/Tech
e) Tertiary
- 11) Marital Status: a) Single b) Married c) Divorced d) Widowed
- 12)What is your main Occupation?
- 13)What are you other occupation(s)?:

C. To find out how communities have participated in planning the Bui Dam.

- 14) Who owns the land around this community?
- 15) Do you have any development association(s) in the community?
a) Yes b) No
- 16) Describe their contribution to the development of the community
- 17) Are there some members of this community employed to work on the project?
a) Yes b) No
- 18) How did they get the job? a) By policy of the project officers
b) Influence of leaders in the community c) Based on agreement in the participation process



19) Has the community been informed about the construction of the Bui Dam by any organization(s)? a) Yes b) No

20) If yes, which organisation(s) informed you?

- a)
- b).....
- c).....
- d) Other(s) specify

21) What was your relationship with such organisation(s) like?

- a) Good b) Not too good c) Bad

22) At what stage of the development of the project were you informed?

- a) long before the commencement of the project
- b) Just before the construction started
- c) After the construction had started

23) To what extent was this community involved in the Bui Dam planning process?

24) Is this level of involvement in the planning process adequate? a) Yes b) No (if yes, go to 27)

25) If No, what did or are you expecting as how you should have been involved?

26) What would you have expected them to do?

27) Who could represent your community in the planning process and negotiate on its behalf?



28) What is the community doing about this level of involvement in planning?

D. How their concern (s) have been integrated into the implementation process (of the Bui Dam).

29) Which people in this community initiate any development project? a) b) c) d) e)Other(s)

30) Who organizes the community for such projects? a) Chief b) Assemblyman c) Youth leader d) Development leader e) Others (specify)

31) Is such process of organization different from that of the Bui Dam Project?

- a) Yes b) No

32) If yes, how?

33) If no, how?

34) To what extent are the following Government agencies involved in the planning process of the dam?

(Indicate as: 1= strongly involved; 2=Involved; 3=Not Involved at all)

01 = The Lands Commission

02= The Survey Department

03= The Land Valuation Board

04= The Town and Country Planning

05= The Administrator of Stool Lands

06= Environmental Protection Agency

35) Who chooses the one that represent (ed) you? a) Community b) government c) project implementers d) District Assembly e) chief(s)

36) Does he/she regularly inform you about what happens in the meetings?

a) Yes b)No

37)At which of the stage(s) do you think the community's concerns would have been addressed better? a) Consultation .stage b) Decision-making stage c) Construction stage

38) Mention some concern(s) about the project that has/have not been addressed

a) b) c) d) Other(s)

39) Have you complained to any organisation(s) that is responsible for the Bui dam construction?

a) Yes b)No

40)If yes, which organization(s)? a) b) c)

41)What has/have that organization(s) done so far?

43) What do you know about Ghana Dams Forum?



62) What do you think is the level of participation of the following groups in this community?

- 01 = Chiefs and Elders []
- 02= Individuals and Family []
- 03= Women []
- 04= Youth []
- 05= Migrants []

(Assess as follows: 1= Very Strong; 2= Strong; 3=Fair; 4=Weak; 5= Very Weak)

63) How has your indigenous source of livelihood been affected since the project began?

64) Did the implementers consider your views as to how alternative sustainable livelihood could be implemented?

65) Has there been discrimination (between settlers and indigenes) with respect to any compensation package? (if No, go to 68)

- a) Yes
- b) No

66) If yes, how?

67) Why are there discriminations

68) Are all ethnic group(s) been treated equitable in this regards?

- a) Yes
- b) No

69) If yes, how?

70) Do you anticipate any discriminatory tendency by the implementers against the minority group(s) in the future?

- a) Yes
- b) No

71) If yes, how do you intend to handle it?

- a) By confrontation
- b) By legal means
- c) By an attack

d) Others (specify)

4. Potential source(s) of conflict as a result of plan implementation. 72)

How was the issue of compensation handled?

73) For what was compensation considered and what compensation was offered?

Item	Amount
------	--------

a)



- b)
- c)
- d)

74) Identify areas/sources of disagreement between the community and the contractors with respect to the Bui Dam construction process

- a)
- b)
- c)

75) What has been done about these concerns?

76) Who is leading the process of seeking to address the concerns? a) chief(s) b) Assemblyman c) youth leader d) Member of parliament

77) Do you anticipate any socio-economic challenge(s) personally? a) Yes b)No

78) If yes, describe the nature of the challenge(s)

79) Do you expect such problem(s) resulting into conflicts?

- a)Yes

80)If yes, how?

81) What measure(s) have you put in place to solve such potential conflict?

82) Briefly discuss how you think such conflict should be resolve.

83) What is your opinion on the agitation of some Chief(s) for lack of adequate consultation?

84) In the wake of the various agitation(s), what has the implementers done?

85) What has government done to help you about your concerns?

86) What organization(s) in the district/region is/are advocating for equitable involvement of the community?



To proffer some solutions on how such concern(s) should be addressed in the future.

87) What do you think government can/should do to help in future potential dam project?

88) What do you think contractors can/should do to help in future potential dam project?

89) What do you think the community or community leaders can/should do to help in future potential dam project?

90) What are your suggestions for future improvement or making this current situation better?

Thank you for your time



A GUIDE FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION TOPIC: COMMUNITIES
PARTICIPATION IN THE PLANNING PROCESS OF BUI DAM PROJECT IN MID-
WEST GHANA.

A. The Planning Process of Bui dam.

1. Probe into the various opinions of the planning process of Bui dam by each focus group.
2. Solicit group's criticisms and appraisals of the planning process of the Bui dam.
3. What are the institutions involve in the planning process of the Bui dam
4. Explore focus group's view about the need and modalities of improving the planning process for the marginalised.
5. Identify the stakeholders involve with the project.
6. Investigate the extent in which lack of broad based consultation in the planning process will affect marginalised groups like women and minority ethnic groups.
7. What were you expecting from the planners during the planning process?. What should they have done differently?
8. Who could represent you and your community in the planning process and negotiate on your behalf?



B. Communities involvement

1. Assess group's opinion about the collaboration that has existed between the community and the institution(s) and whether there is the need for this collaboration to continue.
2. Determine the group's fears and expectation at the various stages during the planning process for ensuring effective participation.
3. Probe into focus group's general view of gender roles during the community's participation in the planning process.
4. Investigate focus group's view on minority group's participation in the planning process.
5. Solicit their view on the impact of the project on their rights

C. Potential source(s) of conflict

1. Identify focus group's general view about the compensation and the resettlement packages.
2. Probe focus group on potential areas of conflict with respect to the dam.
3. Solicit focus group's recommendations of ensuring how various disagreements could be resolved.

Recommendations

1. How do you think the planning process should have involved the affected communities?
2. What improvement should be made?
3. In which way would you propose to have consulted the affected communities?
4. How should conflicts/disputes occurring during such process be resolve?
5. Are there cases in such large projects where community's participation of affected people been effective and used? How were they organised.
6. How should marginalised groups like women and minority ethnic groups be adequately involved in such situations?



APPENDIXC: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR FORMAL ORGANISATIONS

COMMUNITIES PARTICIPATION IN THE PLANNING PROCESS OF BUI
DAM PROJECT IN MID- WEST GHANA.

A. General Information

- 1.Date
- 2.Time of interview: Start End
- 3.Village/Town
- 4.Name of organization
- 5.Type of organization
- 6. Project Area
- 7. Number of Technical Staff

B. Personal Details of Respondent

- 8. Gender: Male Female
- 9. Age: 20-39 40-59 60-79 80+
- 10. Religion: Christian Muslim Traditional Worship Other (specify)
- 11. Marital Status: Single Married Divorced Widowed
- 12. Highest Educational Achievement: None Basic Secondary Tertiary Other Professional Training (*please specify*)
- 13. Office Portfolio:
- 14. Rank:

C. The Planning Process of Bui dam.

- 15. Can you explain the procedure for planning dams in Ghana?(planning stages, laws and institutions involved)
- 16. What is the role of your institution in this process?
- 17. Which other institutions could play such role?

D. Community's Participation

- 18. How does your institution understand the role of participation in the process?
- 19. At what stages was your institutions involve?
- 20. Who participated and in which way?



21. How did your institutions involve women in the participation process?
23. Did the process contribute to building public awareness and ownership of the option finally selected?
24. Were the stakeholders fully able to express their concerns?

E. Fears and Expectations

25. Do you anticipate any effect for the Bui dam project to have?
26. Who is affected negatively?
27. Did your institution involve minority ethnic group and women?
28. Is your institution involved on issues of compensation?
29. What are the losses that your institution considered for compensation?
30. How would you rate the current level of community's that are affected participation in the project?
31. Describe any incentives or control frameworks for enforcement that were developed.
32. Did the process attempt to deal with the asymmetry of power among the various interest groups in the conflict around the dam projects and their alternatives?

F. Sources of Conflict

33. Do you expect any conflict on the Bui project?
34. Please describe the specific conflicts or disputes that emerged during the project(s).
35. How is your institution involve in resolving these conflict
36. To what extent did the consultation and participation prevent conflict around the project?
37. To what extent were majority and minority rights and concerns balanced?
38. Were any groups left out of the decision-making process and (if so) why?

G. Recommendations

39. How do you think the planning process should have involved the affected communities?
40. What improvement should be made?
41. In which way would you propose to have consulted the affected communities?



42. How should conflicts/disputes occurring during such process be resolve?
43. Are there cases in such large projects where community's participation of affected people been effective and used? How were they organised.
44. How should marginalised groups like women and minority ethnic groups be adequately involved in such situations?

